DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 216 669 HE 015 268

TITLE	Policy Issues and Research Design. Contractor Report.
INSTITUTION	National Opinion Research Center, Chicago, Ill.
SPONS AGENCY	National Center for Education Statistics (ED), Washington, DC.
REPORT NO	NCES-82-229
PUB DATE	Oct 79
CONTRACT	300-78-0208
NOTE	456p.
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC19 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Educational Policy; *Federal Government; Government Role; High School Graduates; Legislators; Minimum Competency Testing; National Surveys; *Policy Formation; *Postsecondary Education; Public Officials; Public Policy; *Secondary Education; *State Government; Student Loan Programs; Vocational Education
IDENTIFIERS	High School and Beyond (NCES); *Illinois

ABSTRACT

A study was undertaken of federal and state secondary and higher education policy research design that used a new approach. It systematically used the parties interested in policy development to identify the specific policies within their domain that are in current contention and also identify the arguments and claims on all sides of the policy in question. The report begins with a discussion of the research, and focuses on pluralistic research, which intends to inform all interested parties as well as the policy-makers. The second section describes the results of a three-phase investigation into policy-making. The first phase involved an extensive review of Congressional hearing begun in 1978. The second phase included interviews with Illinois legislators, legislative assistants, and other state officials in state-level policy formation. The third phase consisted of interviews in Washington, D.C. with national organization representatives, Congressional staff, and other federal officials. From these sources were drawn the structure of interests surrounding policies, the content of issues being contested, and information of interest to parties to the policy process. Three segments of education policy are examined separately: secondary education, postsecondary noneducational activities, and higher education. Research problems and instrument design are discussed. A discussion follows of the pluralistic use of policy research, and data from a survey of the 1972 high school senior cohort ("High School and Beyond") are used to examine three policy questions of current interest: minimum competency testing, vocational education, and student loans. A list of references is given, and survey questionnaires and booklets and supporting forms are appended. (MSE)

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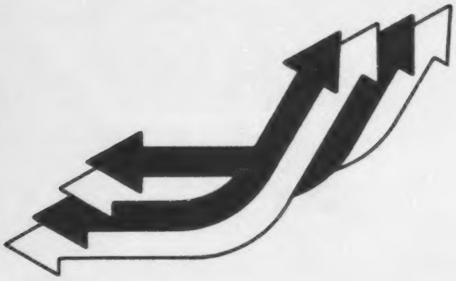
Policy Issues and Research Design



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Policy Issues and Research Design

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Prepared for the National Center for Education Statistics under contract OE-300-78-0208 with the U.S. Department of Education. Contractors undertaking such projects are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment. This report, therefore, does not necessarily represent positions or policies of the Government, and no official endorsement should be inferred. This report is released as received from the contractor.

NCES 82-229

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER

1. Pluralistic Policy Research and its Design 1

Part I. Policies, Issues, and Information Interests

2. Secondary Education 23
3. Post-Secondary Non-Educational Activity 100
4. Higher Education Policy. 147
5. Policy Issues, Problem Areas, and Instrument Design . . . 172

Part II. Policy Disputes and Use of Information

6. Pluralistic Use of Policy Research 224
7. Minimum Competency Testing. 233
8. Vocational Education. 247
9. Student Loans 285
10. Epilogue. 311
References 316

Appendices

1a. Senior Questionnaire
1b. Sophomore Questionnaire
1c. School Questionnaire
1d. Teacher's Comment Form - Senior Students
1e. Teacher's Comment Form - Sophomore Students
1f. Senior Test Booklet
1g. Sophomore Test Booklet

2. Master List of Items

CHAPTER ONE

PLURALISTIC POLICY RESEARCH AND ITS DESIGN

Research to Inform Social Policy

Social research can be conveniently divided into two broad classes, defined by the principal goals of the research: The first class consists of research intended to increase the general body of knowledge in a given area, giving a better fundamental understanding of the social processes surrounding a given area of social life. This is the research that fits a classical mold; it is the research which, together with its complement, theory-construction, constitutes the central activity in building scientific knowledge.

The second is research intended to inform action, ordinarily some action that can be termed "social policy" of an administrative body. This research is not in the classical mold; it is relatively recent, just as the very notion of "social policy" on the part of governmental bodies is relatively new. For example, the Cooperative Research Branch of the U.S. Office of Education was begun only in 1955, and even it was initially designed in part to encourage fundamental research in education. The second kind of research, which may be termed "social policy research" (while the first, classical, kind may be termed "discipline research;" see Coleman, 1972 for further discussion of this distinction, and also Cronbach and Suppes, 1969), has been insufficiently distinguished from the first. It is true that the boundary between these types of research is blurred, and some research in education could be classified into either type; but distinguishing the two sets of goals allows one to see more clearly the different design requirements for the two types of research.

Policy research has certain elements in common with discipline research. But it has certain elements in common as well with other methods of providing information on which policy is based: legislative hearings, informed advice from experienced observors, trial and error, legal research, lobbying by interested parties.

Because of this, it is not sufficient to depend solely on the classical methods of initiating and designing research. Those methods involve testing hypotheses where the hypotheses are derived from theory. But in policy research, the needs are very different. The information desired is not whether a given hypothesis is confirmed or disconfirmed. What is needed instead is information that helps tell what the consequences of a given policy will be. And this immediately raises the questions: What kind of consequences? and, Consequences for whom? The kind of design requirements, and indeed the very methods by which research is designed, come to be very different when questions of this sort are the appropriate ones.

Types of Policy Research

Even within the realm of policy research, there are a number of distinctly different types of research. It is useful to distinguish these, in order to gain a sense of where High School and Beyond lies, and what kinds of functions it can be expected to perform. For High School and Beyond is a specific kind of policy research: it can do some things but cannot do others.

Below is a partial listing of types of such research, together with brief definitions:

1. Social experiments: Interventions, ordinarily on a large scale, coupled with explicit experimental design for testing certain effects of the intervention. There have been a number of these in the United States (according to one observer, as many as twenty), but fewer than the other forms of policy research, because of their magnitude. Examples include the income maintenance experiments, housing allowance experiments, a health insurance experiment,

day care experiments.

2. Program evaluation: Evaluation of an intervention, such as a curriculum change, though ordinarily not with an explicit experimental design. In contrast to the social experiment, where the intervention and observation are intrinsically linked, the program evaluation is often an appendage to a program that is instituted for non-experimental purposes. Examples are the many evaluations of Headstart.

3. Formative evaluation: Program evaluation designed to provide ongoing feedback to program sponsors, to aid in continual modification and evaluation of the program. These evaluations are ordinarily done in coordination with the program itself, because their goal is to improve the actual operation of the program.

4. Summative evaluation: Program evaluation designed to determine the outcomes or effects of a program, ordinarily to aid the decision of whether to continue or discontinue the program. Evaluations of this type are ordinarily sharply separated from program management, because they are designed to inform higher-level decisions about the program.

5. Problem-focussed survey: A survey focussed on a specific problem area or set of phenomena rather than on a specific policy. The problem area is one that potential policies may seek to affect, but the focus is on the problem rather than the policy. Examples are the NIE Safe School Study, focussed on the problem of indiscipline in the schools, or studies of drug abuse, or studies of test score decline. Another example is the 1966 Equality of Educational Opportunity survey of NCES, designed to survey the degree and causes of inequality of educational opportunity by race.

6. Single-purpose status survey: A survey of existing conditions in a specific policy area. Such surveys may be cross-sectional or longitudinal;

they do not track a specific intervention, but obtain data relevant to a specific policy issue. An example would be a survey of the competency levels of high school students prior to the initiation of a minimum competency examination. Because such a policy study is designed to inform a specific policy, it may cover a number of different questions, all relevant to the policy. For example, a study designed to inform policies in the financing of higher education may survey not only students, but college financial aid officers and lending institutions.

7. Multi-purpose policy and problem survey: A survey of existing conditions over a number of different policy areas and problem areas. The scope of such a survey is ordinarily delimited by the policies and problems within an institution, such as elementary or high school, or the policies and problems that impinge on a given set of activities or period of life, such as the later high school and post-high school period. The National Longitudinal Study of High School Seniors of 1972 is policy research of this multi-purpose sort. High School and Beyond, as a parallel study of the 1980 and 1982 cohorts is as well. These surveys, covering youth in later secondary education and the postsecondary years, are intended to be addressed to those policies that do or could impinge on young people in the later high school and post-high school years, and on problems that exist in this period of life, whether there are explicit government policies affecting them or not.

As a multi-purpose study, High School and Beyond is not designed to examine in a detailed and comprehensive way any given policy, but is designed to obtain information relevant to many. The limitations on that information are determined by the data-collecting instruments, i.e., questionnaires and tests of students and questionnaires of schools. The selection of these instruments is in turn dictated by the aim of maximizing the number of policies and problems impinging on youth on which information is obtained. In contrast to social experiments and evaluation studies, no specific programs can be seriously evaluated in such a study, though effects of various factors, as they are found in the population of schools and students, may well be studied. Such a multi-purpose study is only in part designed with a policy focus; in part, it is designed with a problem focus: to study the causes of certain types of problems. For example, youth unemployment is a problem area. Although some information may be obtained in the study on the effects of, our knowledge about, or implementation of certain policies relating to youth unemployment, information is also obtained in order to explain the causes of the phenomenon itself, quite apart from existing policies. Such information is policy-relevant in a different way: it informs the discourse and debate which shape new policies in the problem area.

It is useful, then, to think of two kinds of policy relevance that High School and Beyond will have: information about effects of policies, and information about the causes of problems in areas where there is some present or potential governmental responsibility, and thus potential for policies.

The Approach to Design: Pluralistic Policy Research

There are two conceptions of the function of policy research. One is that of adviser to the prince: the policy researcher provides information to those in policy-making positions, to aid the decision-making process, through which policy is made. Policy research, then, is in this conception a matter between government and the researcher: government policy-makers specify the design, and the resulting information is fed back to these decision-makers.

There are some social scientists and social philosophers who see this in their vision of the rational society of the future and find it appealing. Haworth (1960), for example, writes of the "experimenting society," and conceives of government policy-makers laying out experiments carried out by social scientists, with the information fed back to modify and improve policy. The model is that of a rational actor who uses information about the effects of his actions to modify future actions to come closer to the goal. The vision is that of a society which by successive approximations comes increasingly close to the utilitarian's dream of the greatest good for the greatest number.

There are other social scientists and social philosophers who see this in their vision of the rational society of the future, and find it appalling. Jurgen Habermas (1971), for example, conceives of the rational society of the future in the image of a cybernetic system (that is, not greatly different from the vision of Haworth); but sees social policy research - the feedback portion of that cybernetic system - as part of a central control system that bypasses and undercuts the institutional structure of society, the structure which generates political cleavages and through which the expression of class interests occurs.

There is, however, another conception of the function of policy research that is very different. The conception can be described as "pluralistic policy research." The policy researcher is not the servant of the government official. He, like the official, is the agent of the people - the people not as a mass, but through their various roles, activities, interests. In this conception, policy is the outcome of a clash of interests, not the product of a governmental policy maker. The proper function of social policy research is to inform those interests - not a particular subset of those interests, not government, but the interests themselves - so that they may be better informed about their interests, and thus press more rationally for them. The vision of the future consistent with this orientation to social policy research is not that of a rational society as a single monolithic actor, but that of a society of rational actors, each informed about those matters relevant to its interests.

Policy research, in this view, should be designed with the aim of informing these interests, not with the aim of informing a "government policy maker." (Some who advocate pluralistic policy research would go on to point out that at any given point in time those in policy positions in government are merely the agents of a particular subset of interests that are at the moment dominant, so that to inform government alone would be merely informing a subset of interests, thus increasing further their existing power.) And the data should be made as accessible as possible to the whole set of interested parties that might find it of use. Thus at two points in the research, design and dissemination, the research should be greatly affected by interests, broad and narrow, private and public.[1] It should not, according to this view, be attentive to interests in the execution of the research, for although the aim is to discover answers to those questions that are of interest to various interested parties, the aim is of course not to provide answers that will please these parties, but to provide answers that are as correct as possible.

It is useful to note that, Haworth and Habermas to the contrary notwithstanding, many devices have come into being that move policy research in the direction of the pluralistic concept - despite the fact that there has not been an extensive theoretical exposition of this conception of policy research, and despite the fact that the simpler, more straightforward conception is that of adviser to the prince.[1]

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[1] It is of interest to note that while the political theorists who constructed the Constitution were carefully attentive to the representation of diverse interests in political decision making, they were wholly inattentive to the problem of insuring that these interests are properly informed. This is likely because in a smaller and simpler society, such information is easily obtained, and political institutions can leave it to the interests of those parties to inform themselves. But in a large and complex society, this assumption can no longer be made; information which aids in properly pursuing one's interests is costly and difficult to obtain. Thus if political pluralism in a large and complex society is to function with some comparability to its functioning in a small and simple society, pluralistic policy research is necessary.

For example, there is a law that publicly-collected data are public property, and cannot be sequestered by those who gather and first analyze them. This has led in several cases (e.g., Equality of Educational Opportunity, Headstart) to strong but productive controversy, when reanalyses differed from initial analyses. There has developed in some places the idea of two research projects being carried out by different researchers on the same problem. In at least one case, that of the income maintenance experiments (in which the New Jersey experiment was analyzed by economists at the University of Wisconsin, the Seattle and Denver experiments by sociologists at Stanford), this has led to important discoveries (about the effect of income maintenance on marital stability) that would have remained undiscovered without this competition. There has developed the idea of a "science court," which although it developed around physical science issues, is a response to the same kind of policy-and-conflicting-interest problem that exists in social policy areas.[2]

These deviations from a conception of monolithic research have developed in the absence of an explicit ideological position concerning pluralistic policy research. It seems likely that the evolution of policy research over the next decades will move even further in the pluralistic direction of its own accord. Nevertheless, it appears useful to make explicit the issue and to attempt to devise a conception, as well as a realization of the conception, of pluralistic policy research that can serve as a guide to the future.

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[1] This is the conception that economics has held; yet the menu of economic indicators that exists is a response to the press of various interests, and economic indicators are openly published, available to all interested parties.

[2] For a discussion of the science court idea, see Science, 1976.

High School and Beyond can constitute such a realization: a prototype of pluralistic policy research that serves the multitude of parties that have some interest in the period of life, the set of activities, and the array of institutions, around which High School and Beyond is constructed.

What this pluralism means, as a general principle,is first a recognition of just what parties are appropriate as research analysts and final consumers. Not only are analysts for disinterested research organizations appropriate, but also analysts for interested parties; and as final consumers, not only are government officials who make policy decisions appropriate, but also the broad and narrow interests outside government, all of which properly influence such decisions. This is the essence of pluralistic policy research.

This orientation has implications both for the design of the research and for the dissemination of raw data and publicly-funded research reports. Federal laws require that both the raw data and research reports be publicly available. Effective availability requires, of course, some procedures to facilitate use of the data. But of direct concern here is the design of the research. If the research is to have the broad utility in and outside government that is implied by the principle expressed above, then it must be designed for the broad set of users who have legitimate rights to its use. In particular, it must address questions that are of interest to this wide range of parties. Even for a given policy issue, different parties are interested in different potential consequences. A particular method of financing higher education has consequences for occupational mobility and occupational adjustment that are of interest to students and their families; but it also has consequences for the health of colleges and universities, and those bodies have a direct interest in these consequences. So it is with each policy area: each interest is concerned about specific consequences of a policy, because the policy has different consequences for different parties.

There are three ways of attempting to insure that these differing consequences are - insofar as the overall research design allows it - taken into account in designing the research. One is to depend upon the broader perspective held by government officials who are explicitly charged with responsibility for policy in a given area. The second is to depend upon the broad perspective held by social scientists with research experience in the areas covered by the study. The third is to depend on the interest groups themselves to draw attention to the range of consequences.

All three of these methods have some defects, but the first two appear to have more serious defects than the third. In education, there are few if any policies that are made by single officials; policy-making is divided among branches of government and levels of government. Thus it is hardly possible, in a dispersed area of policy like education, to depend on "government policy-makers" to provide the perspective necessary for design of the research. But there is a second problem as well. Even if it were possible to identify "policy-making officials," it is likely that their perspective will be selectively attentive to certain interests, and the policy consequences of concern to those interests. For policies are ordinarily intended to have certain effects, and policy-makers are selectively attentive to these intended effects, neglecting unintended ones.[1]

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[1] For example, the income maintenance experiments were intended to substitute for welfare without reducing labor supply. Consequently, the principal consequence of the experiments studied was for labor supply, with little attention to consumption behavior. The housing allowance experiments were intended to lead to changes in housing consumption patterns, so that little attention was paid to

Dependence on a broad perspective held by a disinterested social scientist can be equally illusory. For the social scientist also has certain preconceptions about kinds of effects. These, if based on experience, can be a valuable input to the research design, but may seriously neglect certain consequences. It has been said that social scientists are good at answering research questions, but not very good at asking the right questions.

Interested parties are even narrower in their selective attention to consequences than are policy-makers or social scientists. What provides the breadth is the fact the *different* interests are attentive to *different* consequences. Thus interested parties can be seen, from the point of view of research design, as convenient devices for discovering the range of potential consequences of a policy. The practice of inviting interested parties to testify at hearings of legislative committees uses interested parties in this way; and comparable procedures in the design of pluralistic policy research are necessary if it is to be able to make comparable use of interested parties.

This use of interested parties to insure that the research is attentive to a wide range of potential policy consequences is not the same as letting the balance of interests determine the balance of the research design. Pluralistic policy research is not research that is designed in response to the pressures of interested parties; it is research that is designed to be of use to a wide range of interests on all sides of a policy issue. It remains for the research investigator, as a social scientist knowledgeable about the area, to give coherence and overall structure to the design. The

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effects on labor supply. Yet in both cases, the program's actions toward the program participant consisted of a cash payment. One would expect the cash to be viewed similarly by the participants, though it was viewed very differently by the policy-makers.

design should be responsive to a variety of interests, but should be responsible to none.

The Role of the Research Investigator

With this as the general orientation, it becomes necessary to ask just what are the appropriate tasks of the research investigator in the design of pluralistic policy research. As suggested, this task is not to create a full-blown conceptual design based on theories or experience. It consists, rather, of two tasks. The first is to engage in social research: to discover the structure of interests in the range of policies to which the study is relevant, and to learn what kinds of information are relevant to those interests. The second is to integrate this knowledge into an overall research design, to create a data base that will be both useful in satisfying the various "information interests" that parties to a policy decision will have - including, but not limited to, government officials with some responsibility for making policy - and useful in answering research questions that are more comprehensive, and do not stem from a particular interest position.

Thus this second task of the research investigator reintroduces the more theoretical task of conceptual design. But the theoretical task is no longer merely one of conceiving of the processes through which youth make the transition to adulthood. It is, rather, one of conceiving of the policy making process, the interested parties that can exercise some influence on that process, and the kind of information that can inform both the actions of those parties that influence policy and those who in the end make policy decisions. Thus the theoretical task is not the micro-sociology of the individual youth making the transition to adulthood. It is the macro-sociology of the policy-making process that shapes the institutions within which the transition to adulthood takes place.

How can Information Interests be Discovered?

In Congressional committees, hearing are designed to elicit testimony of interested parties and of disinterested "expert" witnesses. When those interests that are well organized have an interest in a policy area, they seek to be heard. Congess does not need to seek them out. The matter is different for unorganized interests. They must sometimes be sought out. And it is sometimes the function of "experts" to express these interests of unorganized groups.

But the matter is more difficult in eliciting information interests to aid in research design. Interested parties, no matter how well organized, will not clamor to be heard, since there is no policy stake. Thus it becomes necessary to engage in active search to discover the structure of interests, even for well organized interest groups.

The search in this case was begun by examining, in the Illinois State Legislature, hearings on bills that were related to the general areas of the research, and interviewing legislative aides. Representatives of the groups identified in this way were interviewed, and a snowball process was used to lead to other groups to interview. The snowball process also led to the Federal level, where initial interviews continued it, identifying further groups to be interviewed. Such a process leads, as one might expect, to problems. Special interests, interested in the welfare of their own constituents, would like to expand the research to address different goals. For example, teachers' representatives, such as AFT, wanted a teachers' questionnaire, in order to provide variables that would aid in showing the effects of teachers in learning. (This, of course, is not an illegitimate aim, given the general goals of the study, though it is not one that could be realized within the study's constraints.

The position of AFT, for example, was that by excluding such data, we could draw incorrect inferences about the absence of school effects or teacher effects where such effects in fact existed and were important.)

Yet, despite the problems, the results of such an enterprise were exceedingly useful in the design of High School and Beyond. Probably the reason is this: special interests, with a narrow focus, are far more sophisticated about and aware of those matters that affect them directly than are disinterested others. It is perhaps no accident that the word "disinterested," which implies a fair and even-handed approach, is only marginally distinct from "uninterested," which implies lack of attention to an area. The strategy, then, is to use the whole set of interests to inform the study without letting the original focus of the study get buried in the variety of ancillary interests that different groups express.

Such a process as described is likely to lead to fairly complete indentification of interests that are well enough organized and sufficiently interested in the policy areas to testify in Congress. It does not lead to identification of those interests too poorly organized to participate in Congressional committee hearings, or too poorly organized to be identified by those groups that have been discoveed. This constitutes a continuing problem, not only here, but in legislation as well. The result is that the concentrated, well organized interests (often termed "special interests") have their positions on policies better expressed - and, one would expect, better reflected in the resulting policies.[1]

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[1] A prototypical case of this arose in the recent educational legislation, PL 94-142. This legislation was passed under the pressure of groups representing the handicapped. It was only after passage of the bill that groups with more general interests in education recognized the impact of this legislation on their interests. The groups representing the handicapped had interests in only this one issue, and thus concentrated all their attention on it, while groups with more general interests in education were attending to other issues as well.

The imbalance between concentrated interests and dispersed interests can be rectified in part by the social scientist's broader perspective on the area of activity. This perspective, while possibly inattentive to certain interests, is probably less likely to neglect broad, dispersed interests than narrow, concentrated ones. In addition, this perspective is more likely to address areas of potential importance to policy that are currently absent from policy discussion.

Causes of Outcomes and Effects of Policies

Types of social policy research differ in the kind of focus they have. A social experiment, like the negative income tax experiments or the housing allowance experiment, is designed to study the effects of a specific policy. Similarly, program evaluation is designed to examine the effects of a particular social program. Conceptual design of such research is relatively straightforward and contained, for the problem is well defined. There remain, of course, dangers of too-narrow conception of the problem. For example, the negative income tax experiments were designed to study the effects of such a tax; but effects were conceived quite narrowly, as the effects on change in labor supply. Major unanticipated consequences arose in the administration of the program, and its impact on other income-transfer programs in the communities (see Kershaw, 1972), as well as in other areas of life, such as marriage (see Hannan, Tuma, and Groenveld, 1978). Similarly, the Follow Through evaluations focussed narrowly on the consequences of programs for reading and mathematics achievement, while other consequences, such as effects on attendance, teacher morale, and costs, were largely unexamined.

Even so, the design considerations for research that examines the effects of particular programs are rather straightforward, since the program or policy is given, and the principal danger is to neglect certain of its effects. For such problems, the value of using interest groups as a way of being sensitized to potential effects is clear; and at the same time, the overall structure of the design from an analytic point of view is rather well defined.

In the present case, there is no single policy on which the research focusses. There are, then, at least two possible ways of approaching the design of such a study. One is to focus on the central processes or outcomes that the research can study, and ask what factors affect those processes or outcomes. In the present research, one of the central processes is the transition from high school as a youth's principal activity to college or work or other activity. Thus the research design can be approached by asking what are the factors that affect this and other processes on which the study focusses.

Alternatively, the design can be approached from the point of view of all the present and anticipated policies in the general area covered by data of the sort that can be gathered in a study of this sort. If one does begin with such a set of policies, like policies on financing post-secondary education, policies on youth unemployment, minimum-competency testing, school programs to increase academic skills, mainstreaming vs. special education, and others, then the design task is quite different. It is a multi-policy analogue to social experiments, in which the focus is on effects of existing or proposed policies, not causes of particular processes or outcomes.

Both these orientations to design have virtues. The focus on causes of processes gives a perspective - and thus a design - that is more attentive to causes that are not due to government programs or policies. It gives a more fundamental view of the outcomes of concern, the factors that affect them, and thus potential areas where intervention might make a difference.

On the other hand, the focus on effects of existing or potential policies will lead to designs that can be of great value, but might be overlooked otherwise. It will suggest variations in policies (e.g., in different states or in different schools) as natural experiments. It will also be more directed and specific in those areas where policies exist or are contemplated. Thus, for example, the design which begins with processes might neglect to get any estimate of the numbers and types of youth that might be attracted by some form of national service, while a design that recognizes such a program as possible policy will obtain such estimates.

Design of policy research can achieve the virtues of both these approaches by using both. Such design will do three things of some importance: It will help insure that important kinds of information are not omitted, it will provide guidelines for the analysis, and it will provide a framework for the data to be gathered in subsequent years.[1]

Background of the Research

The preceding pages give the theoretical basis for pluralistic policy research. The actual carrying out of this theoretical perspective requires translation into a form of social research. It may seem paradoxical that social research is necessary in order to design a social research project; such a formulation would appear to lead to an infinite regress. However, the paradox is easily resolved. The social research project for which a design is required is not an ordinary research project intended to augment knowledge in the disciplines of social science; it is intended to inform social policy.

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[1] The major outlines of the research in this case are, of course, dictated by the existing design characteristics, based partly on the National Longitudinal Study of 1972 seniors.

Given that intention, then the research becomes a part of the social system, potentially playing some role in shaping events in society. If it is to play a role that is properly responsible to the public, then social research is necessary in order to insure that its design does in fact make it responsible to that public.[1]

The absence of prior theory and practice in this area makes such a venture as this one only an initial and exploratory step; a variety of more efficient procedures will certainly be developed as understanding of the macrosociological role of policy research becomes better understood, and more attempts like this one are made. Thus we do not present the procedures used here as a prescription for arriving at optimum design of pluralistic policy research. They are intended, rather, to indicate how we attempted to put these ideas into practice.

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[1] In considering how policy research is most appropriately designed, it appears that the kind of research carried out for the present report is precisely the kind of activity that should precede issuance of an RFP by a government agency. The role of research administrator in a government agency has never had a well-defined definition, and as a consequence there is no principled foundation for the origin of an RFP. The pluralistic policy research perspective described in this report would provide both an appropriate function for persons in this position - that of carrying out research of the sort described in these pages in the structure of issues surrounding policy decisions, as articulated by interest groups, and the information needs generated by these issues - and a foundation of data for construction of an RFP. Fortunately the present project was blessed with a field test year, which provided the lead time necessary for introducing some fruits of the work described in this report into the research design, after the RFP was issued and the research contract awarded. Most policy research, however, does not contain such a possibility.

If such a role were designed for research administration in government agencies, the position would become a far more attractive one than at present, for the position would be one primarily responsible, not to a superior in the bureaucracy, but to the plurality of parties with some interest in the policies intended to be informed by research under the domain of that position. The research administrator would be something of an ombudsman for the interested parties in assuring that their information interests are addressed by the contractor.

The investigation began in the summer of 1978 with an extensive review of Congressional hearings, a massive task due to the large number of subcommittees with jurisdiction over concerns relevant to this multi-purpose research. Issues which arose and organized interests participating in the debates and their positions were cross-filed.

A second stage, intended to inform the research project about state-level issues, was initiated in Fall 1978, in Illinois. Because published records of the Illinois State Legislature sessions available in libraries do not include the identity of groups testifying at hearings, a review similar to that at the national level was not possible. Instead, interviews in the state's capital were conducted with persons in positions to observe the state policy arena to get this information. Respondents included state legislators, legislative assistants from several committees of both the House and Senate, an Assistant to the Governor for Education, persons in the Bureau of the Budget, and others. In addition to providing information on both state policy issues and the structure of social interests around each, the investigators were directed by these interviews to several other fruitful sources. For example, summaries of hearings before the Illinois School Problems Commission and the Governor's Mandated Programs Commission, as well as a list of registered state lobbyists, proved useful. The Governor's Conference on Education, held in December of 1978 in Chicago and attended by over 600 persons from across the state, was particularly helpful in the area of secondary education. Lists of witnesses on important policy issues were obtained from appropriate legislative committees or the State Archives.

Over one hundred organized interested parties were identified in Illinois alone, as well as approximately two dozen policy issues. Reduction of this unwieldy universe was achieved by the use of two criteria:

a. generalizability of the policy issue to other states;

b. potential applicability of the data to be gathered in "High School and Beyond" to the policy issue.

Unstructured interviews were carried out with a subset of representatives of interest groups thus identified. Respondents were asked to name and discuss issues in education and youth policy most important to their organizations. For each issue named, respondents were asked to identify other groups with a similar position on the issue, as well as other groups with a different orientation. This snowball technique yielded several benefits:

1. It ensured that both the identified policy issues and the structure of interests clustered around them were as comprehensive as possible.

2. Within the technical and time constraints of the study, it permitted some modification of the instruments to be used in "High School and Beyond" in order that the data generated be as useful as possible to all interested parties in the policy debate.

While there are many groups interacting in the state policy arenas, the above-described techniques made the analysis of state-level issues and interests feasible. Although some interviews were conducted in Chicago, no comparable analysis of issues and interests at the local level was carried out. In a more systematic and comprehensive activity of the sort described in this report, it would be desirable to examine issues and interests in a sample of localities. The absence of information from localities is somewhat ameliorated, however, due to the fact that many local-level interests are represented by state and national organizations. For example, the NAACP is composed of some 1800 local units; local school boards are represented by very active state and national associations; and so on. And when citizens are aroused about a particular policy issue, such as minimum competency testing, legislators act as agents of their local constituencies' interests in these policy debates.

Originally, we had intended to continue the state-level stage of conceptual design with a similar look at policy issues and interests in a sample of other states, but visits to other states were prohibited by time and budget constraints.[1] Once again, however, many organizations later interviewed at the national level (for example, the National Association of State Boards of Education) are concerned with a range of state-level issues.

The third stage of the research involved interviews in Washington, D.C. with representatives of national organizations, Congressional staff, officials in the Department of Labor, the Office of Education, the military services, and other agencies. Respondents on the national level were chosen through several sources:

a. Files compiled from Congressional hearings during the first stage of the work, described above;

b.Referrals from interviews conducted in Illinois;

c. Miscellaneous sources including federal lists of registered lobbyists, mailing lists used by Congressional committees, and particularly Bailey's (1975) book on education interests in Washington.

Here again, the hundreds of interviews possible from these sources were distilled by the generalizability of a particular policy issue across many interests and the potential degree to which "High School and Beyond" could provide information on the issue. Approximately 60 interviews were conducted in Washington, using much the same open-ended format and snowball technique employed at the state level.

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[1] Some work was begun on the development of a systematic questionnaire about issues and interests, intended to be mailed to key respondents in each state, before it was realized that this was not a feasible solution. Federal regulations require a time-consuming approval process before a questionnaire that is part of a government contract is distributed to more than nine persons.

The data gathered in the three stages of work described above provided the basis for the work in the next four chapters. The aim was to draw from these sources the structure of interests surrounding policies, the content of the issues that are contested on each policy, and the kind of information that might be relevant to the issues and thus of interest to one or another party to the policy process. The next three chapters discuss interest groups, policy areas, and issues, in each of three areas: secondary education, post-secondary activities other than higher education, and higher education. The fourth examines, for policies taken from all of these areas, the implications for design of High School and Beyond.

CHAPTER TWO

SECONDARY EDUCATION

To gain an understanding of the issues and interests that shape policy in secondary education, it is useful first to see an overview of the structure of interested parties in secondary education. The groups are divided for convenience into two classes: the "general education" groups and groups with a "special interest" in education.

Groups with an Interest in Secondary Education

The general education groups are those representing members with roles embedded in the structure of education, for example, teachers or administrators. These groups have broad interests in education, since the consequences of much education policy eventually has an impact on their members.

Special interest groups include those representing specific subpopulations of students, such as the handicapped, or women, or minorities, or gifted students. Also included in this second category are groups concerned primarily with specific programs, facilities and/or services in education. Since the special interest groups' concerns in education are more narrowly defined than those of groups in the general education community, their organizational resources are ordinarily targeted and concentrated in pursuit of their desired policy outcomes, and they are relatively unconcerned with the education structure as a whole.

The level of organization (Federal, state, local) of both types of interest groups will be indicated in the discussion below, since educational policy is made at each of these levels. The impact of an interest group on policy at a given level depends in part on its ability to act at that level.

Another way of characterizing these two classes of interests is between "producer interests: in education and "consumer interests." What we have called general education interests, because they have an interest in many issues affecting education, are the producers: teachers, principals, superintendents, school boards, state education officials. Their interests in education are broad precisely because they are concerned with the whole process of production of education.

What we have called "special interests" are various groups of consumers, nearly all of them representing special subpopulations of students demanding educational equity or special treatment; handicapped, women, blacks, Hispanics. One producer-consumer interest conflict to be examined below, however, is a conflict on minimum competency testing, which encompasses the interests of most students as consumers of education.

It is interesting to note that in the characterization of "general interests" versus "special interests" in politics as a whole, consumer interests are seen as general or sometimes "public" interests, while it is producer interests that are characterized as special. Here it is more natural (as discussion of the issues will indicate) to reverse the labelling.

General Education Interest Groups

Many groups with a general interest in educational policy have as members those who exercise authority in widely dispersed settings below the Federal level. For example, at the national level, there are interest groups ranging from those representing teachers, who exercise authority within the classroom, to Chief State School Officers, who exercise authority at the state level. Some of the more important of these are described below.

The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) represents at the Federal level the interests of state departments of education. In various states, the department is organized in different ways. In 17 states, the chief state school officer is elected by popular vote; in 27 states, the state board of education appoints the chief; in six states, the governor makes the appointment (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1979:30). State departments of education exercise general administrative control over elementary and secondary education. Among myriad functions, these agencies "write the regulations" interpreting education laws passed by the state legislature. Federal mandates in education (which at the Federal level have first been interpreted by a Federal agency, most often the Office of Education within HEW) also pass through state departments of education. State "add-ons" may affect variations in a Federal mandate before it reaches the local level. In reacting to an external Federal mandate, individual states must consider and strike a balance among existing state laws and traditions, current distribution of power within the state, and individual state demographic and fiscal characteristics. This gives the state departments a large stake in federal education policies.

A second interest group representing state-level interests in federal policy is the National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE). State boards of education in the various states are elected, appointed by the governor, or composed of state or local governance officials. Only Wisconsin does not have a state board of education (Council of State Governments, 1978-1979, 344).

In addition to these two state-level interest groups, there is the Education Commission of the States (ECS), with headquarters in Denver, composed of the Governor, two state legislators and four persons appointed by the Governor from 47 states.[1] This interstate compact for the improvement of education is an important component of state interests in education at the national level, with an office in Washington D.C. as well as within the states.

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[1] Montana, Arizona and Nevada are not members of the Education Commission of the States. Three territories, the Virgin Islands, American Samoa, and Puerto Rico are members.

There is a greater number of interest groups with members functioning at the local level, either within schools (teachers and counselors), at the school level (principals), or the district level (superintendents). Each of these groups acts to further the interests of their members (or their members' domains) at all levels above that at which their members function.

The National Education Association's (NEA's) 1,600,800 members are made up primarily of elementary and secondary school teachers, and it acts to represent their interests, although it includes in an ancillary way some professors in higher education, administrators, principals, counselors and others interested in American education. This organization celebrated its 50th anniversary in 1907 with a Congressional Charter (National Education Association, 1978: 145).

The American Federation of Teachers, organized at the national level in 1916, has approximately 475,000 members and is affiliated with AFL-CIO. The AFT is particularly strong in the nation's urban school districts, and in recent years has challenged the dominant role of the NEA in representing teachers' interests.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), with some 36,000 members, represents principals, assistant principals, and others engaged in secondary school administration and/or supervision in both public and private schools. Among other activities, this organization sponsors the National Honor Society.

The chief administrative officer of the local school district is the superintendent of schools. The American Association of School Administrators

(AASA), with 18,000 members, represents superintendents, as well as administrative officers of boards of education and to a minimum extent administrators in higher education institutions, in both public and private schools. Like several other groups which are now independent, this organization was formerly part of the National Education Association.

The governing body of the local school district, the basic administrative unit for the operation of elementary and secondary schools, is the local school board. At the national level, some 95,000 local school board members belong to the National School Board Association (NSBA).

The Council of Great City Schools specifically represents the interests of 29 of the largest urban school districts in the nation's capital.[1] In addition, some very large districts, such as New York City and Chicago, now have their own representatives in Washington.

Parents are often organized at the local school building level, most frequently in PTAs and PTOs. Over the last decade, other groups have arisen to represent parents and children in education, and this development may be in part responsible for a recent increase in national political activity by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.[2] The National PTA, with headquarters in Chicago, has within the last two years retained a professional lobbyist in Washington, D.C. While the National PTA has some 6,403,854 members, it has been losing membership over the last dozen years (PTA, 1978-1979: 16).

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[1] These cities are Atlanta, Baltimore, Boston, Buffalo, Chicago, Cleveland, Dade County, Dallas, Denver, Detroit, Long Beach, Los Angeles, Memphis, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Nashville, New Orleans, New York City, Norfolk, Oakland, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Portland, St. Louis, San Diego, San Francisco, Seattle, Toledo, Washington, D.C. (Council of the Great City Schools, mimeo).

[2] Another manifestation of concern regarding parental influence in education has been the creation of "parent advisory councils" in federal education programs, mandated by statute. Notably, the latest reauthorization of Title I, the largest federal program in elementary and secondary education (for students from low socio-economic backgrounds), mandates both local and state advisory councils of Title I parents.

In the private sector, the Council for American Private Education is a council of associations of private schools, representing approximately 85-90% of American private elementary and secondary schools (Lamborn, 1978: 166).[1] The private schools enroll approximately 10% of the nation's elementary and secondary school children. Conflicts between the public and private sectors have increased as the organizations representing interests in private education have sought additional public resources, and as increasing numbers of parents have begun to use private schools.

This chapter will sometimes refer to general education groups as a class, most often when the policy positions taken by these groups differ from the positions of special interest groups. This should not suggest, however, that these groups always take similar positions on policy issues, as evidenced by some of the divisions between NEA and AFT, nor are they always opposed to the positions of special interest groups.

Groups with a Special Interest in Education

A multitude of groups represent special interests in education. This discussion will deal with only some of the groups currently mobilized to further their interests in state and national arenas.

An example of a group with a concern for promoting particular facilities and services is the American Library Association (ALA). Founded in 1876, the ALA has 33,000 members and 57 regional groups. The Washington office conducts a continuous liaison with federal agencies, including lobbying for the enactment and administration of legislation which will extend library services.

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[1] Membership of the Council for American Private Education includes: American Lutheran Church, American Montessori Society, Association of Evangelical Lutheran Churches, Association of Military Colleges and Schools of the U.S., Christian Schools International, Friends Council on Education, Lutheran Church-Missouri Synod, National Association of Episcopal Schools, National Association of Independent Schools, National Association of Private Schools for Exceptional Children, National Catholic Educational Association, National Society for Hebrew Day Schools (Orthodox-Hebrew), Seventh-Day Adventist Board of Education K-12, Solomon Schechter Day School Association (Conservative-Hebrew), U.S. Catholic Conference.

Over the last decade, concurrent with increasing state and federal support of education, several groups representing particular subpopulations of students have sprung up to enhance the interests of their clients, joining established groups of the same type. All of these have demonstrated sophisticated political acuity in decision-making arenas both within states and on the national level. Perhaps the most widely-known of these groups is the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), founded in 1909, with over 450,000 members and nearly 1800 local groups. NAACP has headquarters in New York City but maintains a Washington D.C. bureau to monitor national policy-making arenas. NAACP is also concerned with eliminating discrimination in housing and employment, among other areas of concern, in addition to its interests on behalf of blacks in the schools. The NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund has functioned independently of the NAACP since the mid-1950s, serving as the legal arm of the civil rights movement in court actions for equality in schools, jobs, voting, housing and so on. It has been the principal sponsor of plaintiffs in school desegregation cases in the courts.

Handicapped students are represented by many groups concerned with the problems of specific categories of handicapping conditions such as the American Speech and Hearing Association, the American Federation for the Blind, and the National Association for Retarded Citizens, among many others. These interest groups are active in other areas of social policy in addition to education.

The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), on the other hand, is principally active in the education sector, working for the advancement of the education of exceptional children and youth, both handicapped (of any category) and gifted. Founded in 1922, currently consisting of about 65,000 members, CEC is located near Washington in Reston, Virginia. It attempts to monitor, coordinate and implement the variety of federal, state and local public policy that directly or indirectly influences the education of exceptional children. It maintains a comprehensive data bank on state and Federal legislation, regulations and litigation involving the education of handicapped and gifted children.

The National Organization of Women (NOW), following the pattern of the NAACP, has set up the NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund. The latter division established the Project on Equal Education (PEER) in 1974 to monitor the government's progress in enforcing Federal laws against sex discrimination in the nation's public schools, with an office in Washington D.C. While PEER's own staff is not large, existing women's groups such as the League of Women Voters in the states and in local communities, not necessarily organized around education interests, nevertheless are natural liaisons to assist in accomplishing PEER's work.

This discussion has only touched on a few of the myriad special interest groups active in shaping education policy. Many of the special interest groups have as members recipients of categorical grant-in-aid programs, funded by separate line-item appropriations from the state or Federal governments. Once a categorical program is established at a higher level, the recipient groups constitute a constituency with strong staying-power. From the perspective of the general education community, they often outlive their usefulness, removing available resources from general education. General education interests prefer distributive or general aid, which provides flexibility to local districts to offer what is actually needed, for the period of time it is needed, in local communities.

In Illinois, state categorical program mandates include special education, bilingual education, secular textbook loans, the free lunch program, and driver's education. There are also curriculum mandates which specify that courses such as physical education, consumer education, career education, vocational and technical education, art, and music must be provided by the local districts in Illinois. All of these have specific groups adhering to them. While some categorical mandates are funded by the state, others are not. Thus a second objection arises, for funding is the backbone of substantive policy. When mandates are underfunded, the local district is forced to realign its priorities to pay the costs of the mandate.

At the Federal level, more than a hundred categorical mandates are line items in the education budget. Here too each has its special interest groups clustered around the mandate. The same arguments over local and/or state control arise at this level, and the difference between funds authorized by enabling legislation and Federal funds actually appropriated can be startlingly wide. Virtually none of the Federal education programs have been fully funded, as the discussion of policy issues will illustrate.

Underappropriations and attempts to cut education budgets at the Federal level led to the organization of the Committee for Full Funding of Education Programs in 1969. The Executive Director of the Committee is a former Congressional staff member, familiar with the workings of Congress and Federal agencies. The Committee includes hundreds of organizational representatives from both the general education groups and special interest groups in elementary, secondary, and higher education. Members ignore their substantive difference in this coalition for the specific purpose of collectively supporting Federal funding of education at the levels authorized by law. The Committee collects budget and appropriation information in order to advise members on the best ways to persuade Congress and the Administration to fully fund education programs, and an extensive lobbying effort to this end is carried out. As is true in less stable coalitions organized around various policy issues, responsibility for administrative details is shared by organizational members, here on an annually-rotating basis.

Major Issues in Secondary Education

The first several issues elaborated below involve policy conflicts between the general education community and special interest groups.

The efforts of special interests are not a new phenomenon in American legislation in general, nor in educational policy. For example, vocational education interests have influenced education policy for decades (the interest groups clustered around vocational education are described in Chapter 3), and while conflicts remain between these and the general education community, the education structure has had time to adjust to these. What is new is the rapid growth of special interests making demands on the education structure all at once, in part a response to a changing opportunity structure for these groups.

The civil rights movement and a new egalitarian emphasis spawned increased Federal concern in education. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 was the landmark legislation which marks the turning point in Federal involvement in education. The largest portion of that Act, Title I, is designed to provide educational equity for children from low-income families.

The early civil rights organizations served as models for other particular interests. In an age of instant communication, the successful tactics used by the early groups were quickly disseminated and copied by others. The political sophistication of both new and existing special interests matured at approximately the same period, and this sophistication has been effectively used to tap newly-available Federal resources.

School districts have been bombarded with a multitude of new demands arriving concurrently from the Federal government, accompanied by inadequate funding to support them. Concern among the general education groups for the stability of both their positions and for the education structure as a whole in light of these demands has of course generated increased political activity among them. Unfortunately for these groups, however, it has been difficult to press these concerns without appearing to oppose equal rights.

These points will be illustrated in three of the issues addressed below: the education of handicapped students, women's equity in education, desegregation. An additional issue that has been important at the Federal level, bilingual education, illustrates these points also. This issue will not be examined here, because it will be the subject of a separate report. However, to illustrate the reaction of general education groups to these special interest issues, it is useful to quote a statement from the AFT:

> AFT has long taken the position that Federal and state bilingual efforts should be transitional in nature and designed to help non-English speaking children achieve enough skills in the English language so that they can participate in the regular school program . . . . up to 3/4 of the children in (bilingual education) programs are there because of a surname or ethnic background rather than any difficulty in speaking or reading English.

To ensure that bilingual education serves only educational goals, AFT suggested:

> . . . a time limit, possibly two years . . . for termination of services to any child in the program unless an individual evaluation is undertaken and the child is found to have a need for instruction in English. There is no other way to assure the continuing existence of a transitional program. As long as there is not a time limit, there will be pressure upon the parents of these children to keep them in bilingual education simply because the more children enrolled in the program, the easier it is to maintain staff and facilities. We have first-hand experience with this sad fact. (Senate Human Resources, 1977)

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975: Public Law 94-142

This section will first review events which culminated in the passage of

Federal legislation for education of handicapped students, and the social interests which support it. An explanation of the relevant sections of the Federal regulations is given, followed by controversies that compliance with the law has raised and the social interests concerned at the national and state levels. Finally, a related emerging issue is briefly sketched.

Background of Education for Handicapped Students: Advocates for handicapped students have been active in several arenas over the last decade, including state and local school board rooms, state legislative chambers and the courts, Congress and federal administrative agencies. Mobilization for activity in each of these arenas of course requires organization at several levels.

As noted above, interest groups emulate and adapt to their own purposes the techniques of collective action used successfully by earlier defenders of other causes. The following except from a publication of the Council for Exceptional Children exemplifies this diffusion of methods:

> In going to the courts, exceptional citizens have joined an old tradition in the United States . . . . the use of the courts to achieve social change, to achieve justice, dates back at least to 1905 when W.E.B. Dubois and his associates founded the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). From the very beginning they articulated among their strategies the use of the courts to achieve the rights that they were claiming . . . . That effort culminated in the decision of the U.S. Supreme Court in 1954 in Brown v. Board of Education which held unconstitutional segregated schooling . . .
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> . . . . In the early 1960's as lawyers became available in some significant number to low income citizens, . . . (these) consumers resorted to the courts. As the 1960's wore on, the courts were used by the women's movement, a use not unlike that by the labor movement some 30 years before. More recently, the elderly have turned to the courts to assert their rights.
>
> That is the tradition into which 13 retarded children in January of 1971 stepped . . . . (Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania). (Weintraub et al, 1977: 16-17)

The Pennsylvania suit was brought against the State, the Secretary of Education, the Secretary of Public Welfare, 13 individual school districts, and all of the school districts in the state, in order to gain access to free public schooling. In addition to providing that all retarded children between the ages of six and 21 be afforded a publicly-supported education, the Pennsylvania decree states that each child be placed in the "least restrictive alternative" program appropriate to the child's capacity.

Later in 1971, in Mills v. Board of Education, the parents and guardians of seven District of Columbia children brought a class action suit against the Washington D.C. Board of Education, the Department of Human Resources, and the Mayor for alleged failure to provide a publicly supported education:

> The plaintiff children ranged in age from 7 to 16 and were alleged by the public schools to present the following types of problems leading to the denial of their opportunity for an education: slight brain damage, hyperactive behavior, epilepsy and mental retardation, and mental retardation with an orthopedic handicap. Three children resided in public residential institutions with no education program. The others lived with their families, and when denied entrance to programs were placed on a waiting list for tuition grants to obtain a private education program. However, in none of these cases were tuition grants provided. (Weintraub et al, 1977: 9)

Mills declared the constitutional right of all children, regardless of exceptional condition or handicap, to a publicly supported education. Policies and practices excluding children without a provision for adequate and immediate alternative educational services and in the absence of prior hearing and review of placement procedures, according to Mills, denied the excluded children rights of due process and equal protection of the law. Mills also rejected lack of funds as an excuse for not providing special programs, stating:

> The inadequacies of the District of Columbia public school system, whether occasioned by insufficient funding or administrative inefficiency, certainly cannot be permitted to bear more heavily on the 'exceptional' or handicapped child than on the normal child. (Weintraub et al, 1977: 9-10)

Court litigation to achieve the end of discriminatory practices in the education of handicapped children, although of landmark importance, was not the only means utilized:

> The decision in PARC and Mills, . . . represent only the tip of the iceberg in the effort to assure through public policy the equal treatment of handicapped children . . . . In addition to the equal protection efforts of the courts, attorneys general in New Mexico (1971), Arkansas (1973), and elsewhere; legislatures in Tennessee (1972), Massachusetts (1972), Wisconsin (1973), and elsewhere; and at least one commissioner of education . . . (New York, 1973) have ordered public policy alteration regarding the public education of handicapped children. (Weintraub et al, 1977: 10)

Several years of intensive effort by advocacy groups for the handicapped such as the Council for Exceptional Children, National Association for Retarded Citizens, United Cerebral Palsy, American Speech and Hearing Association, and many others,[1] culminated in very nearly unanimous approval of the conference bill by both House and Senate, and signature by the President of P.L. 94-142 in November of 1975. The legislation was supported also by social welfare organizations such as the Children's Defense fund, by governance groups such as the National Governor's Association and the National Conference of State Legislatures, by organized labor, and by most interest groups in the general education community.

Several respondents from the general education community commented on the national legislative effort with rueful admiration. As one explained:

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[1] For a more comprehensive listing of advocacy groups for the handicapped, see Appendix at the end of this section. The reader is cautioned that even this list is not exhaustive.

> It was a masterful strategy . . . they (advocacy groups for the handicapped) targeted several states to adopt model legislation . . . different states' laws adopted some of the elements which evenutally became PL 94-142 . . . few states had all of the elements . . . they wrote a masterpiece of legislation (in the Federal law) which combined all of the elements, asserting that this would only reflect what was already occuring in the states . . . but they didn't accurately portray the non-compliance in the states, nor did they portray state legislatures' lack of fiscal support for these laws.

HEW Regulations Regarding PL 94-142: To acquaint the reader with the responsibilities PL 94-142 requires of educational agencies, while at the same time illustrating the perspective of the special interest groups which successfully lobbied for the law on behalf of handicapped students, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) regulations (Federal Register, 1977: 42474) are explained below.

"Handicapped children" include those evaluated as mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired, deaf-blind, multi-handicapped, or as having specific learning disabilities,[1] who because of those impairments need special education and related services.

All handicapped children are to have available to them a free, appropriate education, provided at public expense, which includes special education and related services to meet their unique needs. Related services include transportation and supportive services such as speech pathology and audiology, psychological services, physical and occupational therapy, recreation, early identification and assessment of disabilities, counseling services, and medical services for diagnostic or evaluation purposes. Also included are school health services, social work services in schools, and parent counseling and training.

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[1] Specific learning disability means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect abiility to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain disfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

Each educational agency is responsible for initiating and conducting meetings, to be held at least annually, for the purpose of developing, reviewing and revising a handicapped student's individualized education program (IEP). Each IEP meeting must include a representative of the public agency qualified to provide or supervise special education; the child's teacher; one or both of the child's parents; the child, where appropriate. The IEP for each child must include a statement of the child's present levels of educational performance, as well as a statement of services to be provided and annual goals, including short term instructional objectives. Finally, it must include the projected dates for initiation and anticipated duration of the services, and evaluation procedures.

"Mainstreaming" of handicapped students derives from the "least restrictive environment" stipulation in the regulations. To the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped students must be educated with children who are not handicapped. Removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment must occur only when education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily.

"Due Process" safeguards for parents and their handicapped children are carefully defined in the regulations, as are detailed reporting requirements for educational agencies. As with virtually all Federal funds for education, PL 94-142 contains language to insure that Federal monies "supplement, not supplant"state and local funds expended for the education of handicapped children.[1]

Problems and Concerns Regarding PL 94-142: As the discussion below will illustrate, PL 94-142 exemplifies two general themes often alluded to by respondents in the general education community at the state and national level:

1. The protection of local or state control in education in the face of mandates issued at a great distance from the educational process. For example, according to the Education Commission of the States (1978a:11):

> From the states' perspective, PL 94-142 represents a classic example of a Federal program which seeks to address a national problem by superimposing over extremely diverse state circumstances a uniform and exceptionally detailed Federal solution.

2. The debilitating effect that the gap between levels of funding authorized and the amount actually appropriated has, both on the newly-mandated program, and on the existing programs in public education. The gap means that resources required to implement a new mandate must be redirected from existing programs to fund the start-up costs of the new mandate.

The discussion will also illustrate how the impact of political activity by interest groups shifts over time. As we have seen, advocates for the handicapped began their efforts in the courts and at the state level. The impact of these efforts was felt in particular states. Activity then shifted to the national level. With the passage of PL 94-142, and the regulations interpreting it, the reverberations of this activity are now being experienced in the states, local districts, schools and classrooms across the country.

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[1] A notable exception is Impact Aid, a program which permits educational agencies "impacted" by Federal installations (such as a military base or public housing) which do not contribute to the local tax base to distribute Impact Aid funds according to local needs, as opposed to specific targets predetermined at the Federal level.

According to the Education Commission of the States, the effect of PL 94-142 on states and the relative importance of various issues varies dramatically among the states:

> For some states with extensive existing programs, the law has created few problems (especially in those states with laws on which PL 94-142 was modeled). In other states with well-developed existing programs, the detailed requirements in PL 94-142 related to due process procedures and the supervisory responsibility of the state education agency conflicted with state constitutions or statutes. In still other states, implementation of PL 94-142 may be leading to a major improvement in the accessibility and quality of services to handicapped children. (ECS, 1978a:11)

As has already been implied at the beginning of this section, funds appropriated for PL 94-142 fall short of the authorization level in the law. The law authorizes phased-in Federal funding at a percentage of the average national per-pupil expenditures for public elementary and secondary education, multiplied by the number of handicapped children counted:

Fiscal Year (FY)	1977:	5%
	1978:	10%
	1979:	20%
	1980:	30%
	1981:	40%

Many organizations in the general education community were critical of the fact that PL 94-142 required provision of full service to all categories of handicapped students by September 1, 1978, yet the 40% maximum Federal funding level will not be reached until FY 1981. In addition, the President's FY 1979 budget request for the state grant program authorized by PL 94-142 represented only a 12% Federal contribution, compared to the 20% authorized by FY 1979.

> (This) represented only a relatively small Federal share of the total cost to the states providing "full service" under PL 94-142 by September 1, 1978 - a total cost estimated to be from $5 to $7 billion, depending on the number of handicapped children actually identified and served. (ECS, 1978a:10)

In states with advanced policies and support for the education of handicapped children:

> The issue faced . . . was whether the relatively small Federal financial contribution justified a major change in the state's governmental structures and procedures if, in fact, the state was confident that its existing structure and procedures were adequate to meet the needs of handicapped children in the state. Such a situation led the state of New Mexico to reject participation in the program. (ECS, 1978a:11)

As noted earlier, despite some reservations regarding the specifics of the law, virtually all of the general education groups supported passage of PL 94-142. Apparently, these groups did not anticipate what many of them now view as the deleterious effects of the legislation on the education structure as a whole. Respondents interviewed continue to believe that handicapped children have a right to a free, appropriate public education. The difficulty arises in implementing the services the law encompasses.

Commenting on the lopsided Congressional vote approving PL 94-142, some respondents mentioned that few Congressmen would want to go on record voting against the education of handicapped children. Yet educators who must concern themselves with the effect of new Federal and/or state laws on the education of all children find themselves in the uncomfortable position of appearing to oppose the education of handicapped children. Their organizational representatives report increasing resentment of mandated programs, for if Congressmen and legislators can avoid the difficult decisions regarding distribution of inadequate funds for the programs they mandate, educational decision-makers cannot.

At least some of the general education groups are now working to attenuate provisions of the law. The unintended consequences which political activity by one sector in education may stimulate in other organized interests is displayed by the following quote:

> One indirect effect of PL 94-142 was to create a rallying point for formation of an unprecedented working relationship among the principal national organizations of the states and

> state officials: ECS (Education Commission of the States), NCSL (National Conference of State Legislatures), NGA (National Governors' Association), CCSSO (Council of Chief State School Officers), and NASBE (National Association of State Boards of Education). This coalition approach extended to work on the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA, reauthorized in the 95th Congress) and will continue to be used on major national education issues of importance to the states on the agenda for the 96th Congress. (ECS, 1978a:12)

Several organizational representatives from both local groups in the general education community and from interest groups mentioned during Washington interviews that they view this new coalition of state interests with some uneasiness, concerned that the balance of power has been altered on the national scene.

Several respondents mentioned that they would continue to work for greater appropriations for PL 94-142 at the Federal level, yet given the current economic situation, they were not optimistic regarding the chance of succeeding.

As the following comment by a representative of a general education group attests, much of the social conflict occasioned by PL 94-142 has shifted to state and local levels:

> Yes, our organization supported PL 94-142, but we're not anxious to share the blame. Our state affiliates are now struggling to live with the law.

In Illinois, extensive hearings were held on several bills by the Illinois Senate Elementary and Secondary Education Committee, designed to bring the state into compliance with PL 94-142. A representative of the Council for Exceptional Children came to the state to testify at these hearings, joining such proponents of education for the handicapped as the Illinois Council for Exceptional Children, the Illinois Association for Retarded Citizens, the Coordinating Council for Handicapped Children, United Cerebral Palsy of Illinois, Illinois Council for the Hearing Impaired, and others; as well as representatives of private and public local and state agencies providing special education services.

Representatives of groups in the general education community in Illinois also testified on these bills. One representative commented:

> . . . the recent Illinois bills on special education could not have passed without the Federal mandate which forced them . . . because Illinois has had a high involvement with special education, there was no real hysteria here when PL 94-142 passed . . . . Although we have a lot of interaction with our national organization, they gave us no early warning that PL 94-142 would pass at the national level, and the impact it would have for state and local affiliates . . . we have no research arm of our own, so I guess we don't have enough communication with the national organization.

The comments of a lobbyist for a general education group in Illinois will give the reader a sense of the situation regarding handicapped education currently:

> PL 94-142 is of course a very big issue. Both Springfield and Washington lay things on us. This is part of the whole question of mandates without providing adequate, or even any, funding assistance . . . . Because of the enormity of the cost of handicapped legislation, which is hardly fully-funded, resistance is starting to surface . . . . Allied with us here are many of the educational organizations, while only the handicapped groups themselves would be opposed to us on this . . . of course, the handicapped legislation is essentially a good idea, a fair idea. Thousands of kids were formerly ignored who deserved special education . . . but when you have to cut from the regular programs to pay for these, there is general agreement among educational organizations that it's time to start resisting . . . . I would predict an increase too in the number of lawsuits, there is one currently, by parents of so-called "normal" children, who are challenging these mandates for special education kids and suing for individualized instruction for their own kids.

Many general education groups are concerned that the IEP mandated for handicapped students will result in diminished individual attention for average students. A number of special interest groups, however, have taken an interest in the IEP for possible future purposes of their own. For example, the NAACP notes that an

> important feature of the Individualized Education Program (is) fundamental when any attempts are made to provide a quality education for black students. Thus, individualized education

> plans should be mandatory at all levels of education. The stress on parental involvement would be particularly beneficial. The goal is not only IEP, but the IEP is also a good vehicle for developing the black parents' mastery over the total educational process, decision-making, allocation of funds, teacher accountability, types of programs, etc., which affect their children. (NAACP Special Contribution Fund, September , 1977: 65)

the IEP requires administrator and teacher participation. Items such as the duties of the teacher are typically negotiated in collective bargaining contracts at the state of local level, and from the perspective of the American Federation of Teachers:

> . . . many of the difficulties caused by PL 94-142) are there because the law does not recognize the role of collective bargaining in the guaranteeing of teacher rights. (Senate Human Resources, Subcommittee on the Handicapped, 1977: 739)

At both the state and national level, teacher organizations are concerned that regular classroom teachers are not receiving enough support to deal effectively with mainstreamed handicapped students, a population most teachers have not been trained to serve. According to a source in the Illinois Office of Education, Illinois is one of only a few states which requires local school districts to budget a percentage of the funds received for handicapped education for in-service teacher training. The general consensus is that since funding is inadequate, in-service treacher training is often neglected.

Within the classroom, support services from specialists such as psychologists, speech therapists, social workers, etc., are supposed to be available to the teacher and the handicapped child. At least in some localities, however, specialists in the school or district are so overextended that teachers have been asked to delay referrals to them. But while there have been some backlogs in developing the individualized program for handicapped students, the primary problems in implementing the program at the secondary level seem to involve scarcity of special education personnel. As one person explained, there is a shortage of learning disabilities specialists because it is increasingly believed that educational problems may be due to specific learning disabilities rather than emotional problems or general intelligence problems. Where there is a backlog in either referrals for diagnosis or in carrying through an IEP for a handicapped child, teachers and students are left to implement mainstreaming in the absence of support services. Under such circumstances, as one teacher representative commented:

> . . . one wonders if PL 94-142 is helping or hindering the education of handicapped children.

Advocates of handicapped children are of course keenly interested in data indicating how mainstreaming is working, and whether the handicapped have access to the same educational opportunities as non-handicapped students. A special concern is how comfortable the handicapped student feels in mainstreamed settings, and whether or not the student feels accepted by classmates and teachers.

There is concern too that racial/ethnic minorities may be disproportionately labelled as handicapped students. Court cases, e.g., Diana v. State Board of Education, 1970, 1973 in California, have successfully challenged the inappropriate labelling of non-English speaking children as mentally retarded. According to the NAACP:

> The NAACP, when necessary, must engage in litigation that will stop the channeling of black students into special education programs as a result of assumptions based upon a deficit model. (NAACP Special Contribution Fund, September, 1977: 68)

PL 94-142 has been described as one of the most comprehensive Federal laws in education ever passed. As the Education Commission of the States notes:

> Beyond the fiscal and legal issues, fundamental questions need to be answered regarding the impact of PL 94-142, including issues such as the use of . . . (the) "least restrictive environment" on the education process at the local level, on handicapped children and their families, on regular classroom teachers and on other children. (ECS, 1978: 11)

A Related Emerging Issue: Gifted and Talented Programs: According to a number of national surveys (see National Opinion Research Center, 1978), the percentage of respondents reporting "a great deal of confidence" in people running various institutions in American society has declined over the last ten or fifteen years. In the most recent period, one of the sharpest declines in public confidence has been in education: while in 1974, 49.0% of respondents expressed "a great deal of confidence," by 1978 only 28.4% gave this response. While the outcomes of this crisis in confidence may include the taxpayer revolt and the minimum competency testing movement, several respondents in the general education community believe the emphasis on special subpopulations of students mandated over the last several years is a primary contributor to the confidence decline. In addition to handicapped students, resources have been directed specifically toward low-income students (Title I), desegregation programs (ESAA), and multi-lingual/multi-cultural programs (Title VII), among others. Parents of students without such special problems may feel that by comparison, their children are neglected. As one respondent in the general education community expressed this interpretation:

> . . . in a sense, the college-bound are the largest minority of all . . . yet parents with a "gifted" youngster are increasingly asking themselves if the public schools can adequately serve their child's needs, and deciding that the answer is "no."

One antidote to the perceived decline in public confidence in education is seen by some in an increased accent on Gifted and Talented Programs.[1] Some states already have such programs in place. In addition, there is a Federal program, Title IX, Part A, of the 1978 Elementary and Secondary Act reauthorization, with a 1979 appropriation of just under $4 million (education for the handicapped, by contrast, receives 250 times as much, approximately $1 billion). Under this program, the "gifted and talented" are those students

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[1] Gifted and Talented Programs are categorical programs, i.e., programs in which resources are specifically targeted. Thus, this tactic emulates the methods of the particular interest groups in hopes of counterbalancing the Federal and state programs mandated through their efforts. Other groups in the general education community lobby for additional "distributive" or "general" aid. For example, as a long-range objective, the National Education Association wants one-third Federal funding of education, delivered through a two-part

> . . . who are identified at the preschool, elementary, or secondary level as possessing demonstrated or potential abilities that give evidence of high performance capability in areas such as intellectual, creative, specific academic, or leadership ability, or in the performing and visual arts, and who by reason thereof, require services or activities not ordinarily provided by the school. (PL 95-561, 1978)

For different reasons, other interest groups also champion Gifted and Talented programs. The Council for Exceptional Children, mentioned above as very active in the passage of PL 94-142, "has as its principal purpose the advancement of the education of exceptional children and youth, both handicapped and gifted." This group can be expected to extend its efforts for gifted and talented children. Similarly, the NAACP is concerned with the education of gifted black children, as are advocates of other subpopulations of students concerned with the education of their gifted students.

Equal Educational Opportunity for Women

Another policy area involving a subpopulation of students is that involving women. Policy issues have focussed on sex discrimination and sex segragation in education.

Background and Legislation: The feminist movement which emerged in the 1960's has also had an impact on education. Title IX of the Education Amendments

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system: general aid for maintaining and operating schools, with the funds to be used as local districts see fit; a continuation of existing Federal categorical programs. (National Education Association, 1979/80: 7) of 1972 was passed by Congress after Congressional hearings held in 1970. Closely modeled after Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits racial discrimination, Title IX provides that no person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance. The Department of Health, Education and Welfare spent three years drawing up the regulations which interpret Title IX:

> Citizen input on the provisions of the regulation was sought. Requests for comment on how Title IX should be implemented brought 10,000 responses - the largest number HEW had ever received on a single issue. The final regulation was published on July 21, 1975. (NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund, 1978: 2)

Title IX extends from preschool through graduate school, prohibiting sex discrimination against students, professional staff and support staff. It also prohibits sex segregation in nearly all activities: a) classes, including physical education; b) extracurricular programs and activities, including athletics; c) occupational and vocational training; d) services, aids or benefits such as counseling, coaching, or awards; e) rules of behavior or disciplinary actions that treat boys and girls differently (NOW, 1978: 16). Beyond the classroom, any recipient of Federal education funds, whether state agency, school district, institution, organization or person must comply with Title IX.

The HEW regulations provide that student clubs which are sponsored by public schools cannot have sex segregated membership. In addition, the school may not cooperate with other organizations for youth which have sex segregated membership, however, the following are exempted from that rule:

a) the YMCA, YWCA, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls;

b) voluntary youth service organizations which can demonstrate:

1. tax exempt status;
2. membership which has always been single sex;
3. membership mainly of persons less than 19 years old.

Institutions controlled by a religious organization are exempt to the extent that Title IX compliance would be inconsistent with the religious tenets of the organization. U.S. military and merchant marine training schools are also exempt.

As part of the Special Project Act of 1974 (PL 93-380), legislation complementary to Title IX was enacted. The Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA) supports activities such as:

- the development and evaluation of curricula, textbooks and other educational materials;
- model preservice and inservice training programs for educational personnel;
- research and development;
- guidance and counseling activities, including the development of nondiscriminatory tests;
- educational activities to increase opportunities for adult women in order to promote educational equity.

WEEA also established a National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, joining several existing advisory councils in the Office of Education. Seventeen public members appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate, and three ex officio members (Chairman of the Civil Rights Commission, Director of the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor, and the Director of the Women's Action Program of HEW) are charged with the improvement of educational equity for women. Given the relatively small budget of WEEA (1978 appropriation, approximately $8 million), the Council has decided to concern itself with the improvement of educational equity for women in all Federally-assisted programs rather than limiting its scope to WEEA.[1]

In 1974 the National Organization for Women (NOW) Legal Defense and Education Fund established PEER (Project on Equal Education Rights) to "monitor the government's progress in enforcing Federal law against sex discrimination in the nation's public schools." PEER is chiefly supported by grants from the Carnegie Corporation and the Ford Foundation. The Rockefeller Family Fund has also contributed to the project's work.

The National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education was also formed in response to the controversy over developing HEW regulations regarding Title IX. (For a list of organizational members of his coalition, see Appendix at the end of this chapter.)

The Controversy Regarding Equal Education for Women: Opposition to Title IX was intense, indicated by the number of responses to the HEW invitation to comment on proposed regulations. A major area of dispute was inequality in athletic programs for male and female students. While HEW regulations do not require that equal amounts be spent on boys' and girls' athletics, nor on each girl or boy athlete, they do require that funds be spent in a way that produces equality of opportunity by sex in sports.

At Congressional hearings to evaluate the HEW regulations in June of 1975, PEER of the NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund charged conspicuously unequal apportionment of resources and facilities to women's sports programs. The position of feminist groups regarding athletic teams is exemplified by PEER:

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[1] Other Federal funds may also be used to promote women's educational equity. For example, a four-day conference for elementary and secondary education staff held in Berkeley in 1979 was funded by the U.S. Office of Education under Title IVC.

> Girls need to know that they can be winners. That they can compete, show leadership and understand teamwork. Knowing this affects how they see themselves and their potential. Even if they don't play all the time themselves, they have a right to a model which says girls are worth cheering and supporting; that girls can win. (PEER, 1978, 2: 1)

The American Football Coaches Association charged that it would be financially impractical to provide equal funding allocations between women's sports and major revenue-producing men's athletic programs.

A more general source of resistance applies to nearly all mandates from higher levels of government. Inevitably perhaps, paperwork requirements for state and local educational agencies and school administrators regarding the status of the mandate are considered far too detailed and time-consuming, and are resented. Title IX regulations, for example, require a self-evaluation by each recipient educational institution within one year of the effective date "of its current policies and practices and the effects thereof concerning admission of students, treatment of students, and employment of both academic and non-academic personnel," to be maintained on file for at least three years following completion of the evaluation, with appropriate modifications of policy and remediation to be taken accordingly, whether or not charges of discrimination were brought.

Excessive paperwork became an issue itself during the last session of Congress, and some steps were taken at the Federal level to ameliorate the problem. Nevertheless, reporting requirements contribute to the feeling in the general education groups, as one respondent put it, that:

> . . . in addition to Congress, the Executive Branch, and the Judiciary, there is now a fourth branch of government: the Federal bureaucracy, which takes on the responsibility of interpreting legislative intent, setting up its own rules and regulations, for example, a mandate prohibiting mother-daughter banquets in our schools as a violation of Title IX . . . . We just feel inundated with reports, questionnaires,

> demands, guidelines, restrictions . . . it goes on and on . . . there is a spreading of chaos and confusion . . . . A Federal program is assumed to be successful in a monolithic school system, and what is good for New Mexico will have to be good for New Hampshire. It doesn't work that way! . . . as part of the Federal involvement, they bury us in a paper blizzard . . . and what will they do with all that paper? . . . much of it will be put on a shelf to gather dust.[1]

Opposition to the Women's Education Equity Act in the general education community appears to be less based on philosophical grounds than on the wisdom of funding yet another "top-down" categorical program. Discussing the relative roles of the Federal, state and local levels of government, one respondent echoed the perspective of several others:

> . . . the higher the level the decision-making process takes place, the least likely it's going to be administered, because education does take place at the local level . . . a Federally-funded program will exist for two years . . . . Metric Education, Career Education, Women's Equity . . . these are fine and good purposes, but they are put on like a bandaid, and once the funding ceases they can be torn off like bandaids that have no lasting effect so that educational change does not take place at all, it's becoming more or less "cosmetic." Similarly, as more and more regulations, guidelines, policy statements are made at the Federal level, there is less and less opportunity at the local level to maneuver to meet local needs . . . before all of this took place, a lot of policy was developed at the local level, teachers were involved with the development of policy, principals were involved, the superintendent was involved, and things actually happened. Now nothing happens, except lip service being paid to these various directives.[2]

Some in the general education community believe the small amounts of money for women's equity programs would be more useful if it were added into the Federal Basic Skills Program (Title II of the 1978 Elementary and Secondary Education Act). Some others would prefer to see monies now flowing to several small categorical programs placed instead into a general distributive fund, with states and/or local agencies assessing how to spend it.

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[1] Much the same sentiments are voiced by groups representing local school administrators against state agencies.

[2] Once again, the same sentiments are to be found regarding state-mandated categorical programs.

Women's groups, in a fashion similar to constituents of other categorically-funded programs, would vehemently protest that from their perspective, historical state and local inattention to the needs of women students and staff testifies to the need for continuing Federal categorical support.

Testifying before the House Education and Labor Committee in June of 1975, a representative of NOW cited some statistics indicating women's need for education preparing them more realistically for the future, including: 40% of the American labor force is composed of women; even if married, a woman can expect to work for about 25 years (if single, approximately 45 years); 13 million women with school-age children work outside the home (4.9 million with pre-school children); the divorce rate is up 109% since 1962 and rising; in the past 50 years, the longevity rate for women increased 20.6 years (only 13.8 years for men); the majority of old people who are poor are women.

An interest group with a specific concern in education may rationally expect that successful passage of a Federal law is the most effective means of protecting and enhancing its interest. Presumably, the national law should eliminate the necessity for case-by-case battles, whether in school districts or in states. It is interesting, in reviewing their literature, to discover the perspective of some of these groups regarding this strategy after such a success. According to a publication of PEER, in August of 1976:

> . . . headlines were ridiculing a HEW decision on father-son school banquets shortly before the presidential election. Under pressure from the White House to prevent a repeat of such public embarassment, agency leaders decided that Title IX policy-making was too loaded to be trusted to their own staff in the regions. All regional authority to interpret Title IX in any way without prior approval from Washington was abolished . . . . For ten months . . . HEW officials in Washington allowed almost no written communication on Title IX out of the office. Privately, Health, Education, and Welfare leaders acknowledged

> that they felt the best way to avoid controversy was to make no decisions at all. The "moratorium" on policy making, as HEW staff began to call it, was on . . . . Title IX enforcement, hardly vigorous to start with, came to a virtual standstill across the country. (PEER, 1978: 36)

In addition, PEER charged that "HEW was not getting the word out" to schools or to the public adequately:

> Since 1975, HEW has taken no steps to let school administrators around the country know about the way it is interpreting Title IX . . . . To benefit from the laws that protect them, people must know the laws exist and how to use them . . . . Federal, state and local civil rights agencies often produce media campaigns to familiarize the public with newly-won rights. HEW itself sponsored a nationwide radio and television campaign to alert college-bound students to available Federal scholarship aid. It has undertaken no similar publicity effort for Title IX.
>
> Many people in schools today, and many parents with children in schools, still do not know about Title IX or their rights under the law. (PEER, 1978: 21)

In 1977, PEER released results of its own year-long study of the files of HEW's 10 regional offices, using more than 60 PEER-trained monitors. (While PEER's own staff is small, it has access to existing state and local women's groups from which to recruit assistance.)

> Out of 871 complaints filed with OCR during the four years following the adoption of Title IX, only . . . 21% had been investigated and resolved. Only . . . 7.1% had been investigated and resolved within six months of OCR's having received the complaints, while more than one-third of the complaints filed as far back as 1974 were still awaiting action three years later.
>
> Perhaps more telling, the government had not cut off funds from a single school district where it had issued a finding of illegal discrimination. (Carnegie Corporation, 1978: 2)

The findings of the study ("Stalled at the Start," quoted in part above) were headlined in the press, and used both to inform the public about the law and to pressure the government to enforce the law.

Information Interests of Women's Groups: Although the interests of various groups involved in the conflict surrounding this issue have been evident above, women's groups are interested in certain special kinds of information. Sex-related differences in specific curricula are of high concern to these groups. Several pieces of research have found sex-related differences in mathematics. For example, a NIE report, using data from Wisconsin during the 1975-1976 school year, notes:

> There are sex-related differences in the studying of mathematics. This is indicated by females choosing not to enroll in mathematics courses in high school and by the paucity of females in university mathematics courses. Undoubtedly, the most serious problem facing those concerned with equity in mathematical education for the sexes is ensuring that females continue their study in mathematics. In support of this statement (the Wisconsin data indicate that) while approximately the same number of females and males were enrolled in algebra, in the advanced courses many more males were enrolled. (NIE, Nov. 1977: 86)

High school enrollment in advanced mathematics courses affect ability to complete higher education requirements for non-traditional (for females) and higher-paying fields:

> Engineering and sciences require the "hard" calculus sequence in the undergraduate major. Without high school trigonometry, there is no way for the student to complete the undergraduate major in four years . . . . job opportunities for people with degrees in Business and Management are good . . . access to these majors requires the "soft" calculus sequence, which also requires trigonometry in high school . . . . Among the employers recruiting at the University of Maryland in the spring of 1978, only 16 percent were looking for new employees in undergraduate fields which did not require either the "soft" calculus, or the "hard" calculus. One-third were looking for students with at least the "soft" calculus sequence, and half were looking for students with the "hard" calculus sequence. (Jacobs, 1978: 138)

For the same reasons, enrollment in advanced science courses is also of high interest.

Physical education classes were required by HEW regulations to be integrated by sex in all secondary schools by the 1978-1979 academic year. Athletic sports, as indicated earlier, were an issue both in higher education and in secondary schools. Little is known about the impact of either requirement nationally, and there is high concern with related questions, such as the number of athletic scholarships awarded by colleges to females with the new regulations in place.

Racial Desegregation

Racial desegregation in education is a policy issue that has been played out largely in the courts and in HEW enforcement of its desegregation guidelines established under the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The court action in modern time began in 1954, when the Supreme Court in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka established the principle that schools segregated as a result of state action were "inherently unequal." The consequences of the Court as the principal arena of policy-making are extensive. A somewhat different set of interested parties than those active in legislative hearings has played an active role in the issue. Those who have been active have played a central role, initiating court cases and thus establishing the grounds on which the conflict is to be fought, as plaintiffs in court cases. Most of the general education interests have played no role at all. Some of the special interest groups in the civil rights movement which specialize in legal cases have been major protagonists. These include the NAACP Legal Defense Fund, which has initiated most of the important court cases, the American Civil Liberties Union, which has done so in a smaller number of cases, and others. The other principal actors in the court cases have been the defendants in court cases or HEW administrative hearings, local school districts.

The role of social science information in school desegregation has also been sharply different from that in other education issues, largely because of the court as the locus of decision. Once the constitutional principle of the Brown case was established, the issue was regarded, for some years, as a constitutional one, for which social science information about the consequences of segregation or desegregation would appear to be irrelevant. When school desegregation actions consisted merely of eliminating a dual system, with the resulting residential patterns leading to fully integrated schools, social science information was not used, because application of the Brown decision was straightforward. But in cities, where residential segregation by race was extensive, application was not so straightforward. Establishment of attendance zones around neighborhood schools constituted the kind of school assignment traditional in American education; but because of residential segregation, it did not result in extensive desegregation. Thus some other principles were necessary in order to determine the extent of desegregation the court would order the city to carry out.

Beginning in 1968, in Hobson v. Hansen (Washington, D.C.), information from policy research on the consequences of racial (or social class) composition of the schools on achievement entered court cases as evidence. These research results were introduced by plaintiffs in Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education to show that black children would be benefitted academically by being in integrated classrooms, and that white children would not be harmed academically. This case, in which the court ruled that neighborhood school assignment was not sufficient to disestablish a dual system, and that city-wide bussing to produce integrated schools was appropriate, established the pattern for future urban desegregation. Keyes v. School District No. 1, in Denver, as the first school desegregation case in a Northern city, used similar evidence from social policy research to carry that precedent to Northern cities.

Policy research results on integration and achievement were used by plaintiffs for similar purposes in other cases, and in Richmond and Detroit were used to argue for bussing across school district lines. In 1974, however, in Milliken v. Bradley (the Detroit case), the Supreme Court in effect disallowed such evidence by holding that evidence of official acts of discrimination, and not merely evidence of benefits resulting from desegregation, was necessary for the court to find against the defendant, and impose a desegregation remedy. The effect in that and other cases has been to limit desegregation remedies to a single school district, within which discriminatory actions had been proved. The effect on the use of policy research results as evidence was to virtually end the use in courts of evidence on integration and achievement, since such evidence was irrelevant to the finding of official acts of discrimination.

During this period, nearly all use of research results as evidence had been by plaintiffs in court cases. Beginning in 1975, a new research result, on effects of school desegregation in cities on loss of white children from the schools, began in a few cases to be used by defendants. Defendants argued that extensive desegregation remedies, such as city-wide bussing, made effective desegregation within the city impossible because they reduced the number of white children in the district with whom desegregation could be accomplished. Increasingly, as the proportion of black children in central cities has increased, and as some cities have come to have large populations of Hispanic children, demographic data and analysis has come to be introduced, both by plaintiffs and by defendants, to support a more or less extensive desegregation remedy. It remains true, however, that school desegregation cases have, since the 1974 Milliken v. Bradley ruling which established the principle of proof of *de jure* segregation, used little research on the effects of school desegregation, either effects on achievement or effects on loss of whites.

Two caveats must be made to this, however. One is in the State of California, where a State Supreme Court ruling has held that localities have an affirmative responsibility to overcome segregation, whether it arises from _de jure_ or _de facto_ causes. Consequently, in cases in California cities, most notably in San Diego and in Los Angeles, research results on effects of desegregation have been, and continue to be, important parts of the evidence used by the judge. These results include those concerning effects on black student achievement (results, based on districts which have undergone desegregation, that are far more equivocal than the earlier research used before 1974) and those concerning effects of desegregation on loss of white children from the schools.

The second caveat concerns the indirect effects of policy research results, when not used as evidence in the court. These results came to be widely publicized and are certainly known to judges. In addition, the existence of a general consensus in the academic community (as existed earlier) on the benefits of extensive school desegregation remedies or a division in the academic community (as exists at present) is known to judges. It is likely, in an area like school desegregation in which the courts have been the instrument of social policy, that judges do not consider only the legal precedent for a decision, but also the social consequences. Social research results are undoubtedly an important source of information about those consequences.

Because of these two caveats, and because research results on effects of desegregation receive extensive attention in the media and by the public, it is likely that information from policy research will continue to affect school desegregation policy. In addition, although the courts have been the principal arena for school desegregation policy, they have not been the sole arena. The Executive Branch of the Federal Government, principally through HEW and its civil rights arm, Office for Civil Rights, has established guidelines for school desegregation going beyond the _de jure_ principle of the courts, and has used the withholding of Federal school funds as a means of enforcing those guidelines. The way this has sometimes operated is described by one respondent:

> . . . those school districts which have really been under fire to desegregate find the (Federal) school aid funds will be absolutely essential, because they know they can't get local dollars or state dollars to fund the programs to make desegregation look palatable . . . it's interesting to see that the good intentions of school systems to (desegregate) under programs like the Emergency School Aid Act (ESAA) are sometimes used against them. For example, the Office of Civil Rights is now pushing Title IX, that is, whether or not the school district is providing equal access to female students in athletics and all the rest. So now (a school district) which is in the process of meeting a court-ordered desegregation program, with $3-4 million in magnet school money, another $1 million of Basic Grant money (from the Federal government) to provide reading and mathematics instruction in the desegregating schools so that the kids and their parents will feel there's something attractive for them. . . . And now OCR decides that because in the application process it says you're not eligible for Federal funds unless you have a clear record with regard to OCR compliance says, "Well, we think you may have a problem with Title IX, so we are going to hold up (Federal desegregation aid), which has nothing to do with Title IX, but we are going to hold that up until we get a chance to review this completely." . . . . and then they go a little further and say, "Well, although we haven't established that you're guilty of this thing, we feel that we ought to investigate a little further," and the time lines drag on, and they use it, well, as kind of a club to make people do things - to hold up the (desegregation) program itself as a hostage . . . .

Congress has in a few cases (such as the Emergency School Aid Act of 1972, reauthorized by the 95th Congress as part of ESEA, or in sporadic attempts to initiate a Constitutional Amendment against bussing or assignment of children to schools by race) acted on school desegregation. In general, however, it has been inactive, leaving the issue to the courts.

State legislatures and state boards of education have also constituted arenas within which school desegregation policy has been enacted, in some cases more stringent than Federal policy as it has evolved in the courts.

Finally, school desegregation plans, whether voluntarily created or required by higher authority, are developed at the local level, and research results on desegregation can be of great aid in designing such a plan.

The existence of various arenas of school desegregation policy outside the courts means that policy research results can be useful to various interested parties in school desegregation. There are a number of issues and kinds of information in addition to those discussed above in which these parties have an interest. Advocates of more extensive desegregation are interested in determining the degree to which minorities are tracked into certain courses, certain vocational programs, and into remedial programs, creating segregation within the school. They are also interested in information about suspensions and expulsions of minority students, arguing that minority students are differentially and unfairly expelled. Opponents of more extensive desegregation are interested in the effect of desegregation on disorder and on disciplining problems in the classroom and the school. They are also interested in suspensions and expulsions, arguing that the necessity to maintain racial balance ties the hands of school principals in maintaining order. Hispanics are interested in the effect of desegregation in bilingual programs. Persons responsibile for designing desegregation plans are interested in what practices create demographically stable schools, low levels of interracial conflict, increased interaction between blacks and whites, and other positive outcomes of school desegregation.

Minimum Competency Testing

Another issue in education exemplifies special interests versus general education interests in a somewhat different way. This is minimum competency testing. While the preceding special interests issues were concerned with special subpopulations of students - handicapped, women, blacks - this one concerns interests of the consumers of educational products. These include taxpayers, parents, employers, and others with an interest in the skills of high school graduates. These interests are "special interests" in a different way from those of particular student subpopulations: Their principal interests are elsewhere but intersect with education at this specific point of student achievement.

Another way of looking at the division of interests on this issue is, as discussed earlier, a division between interests of educational consumers, advocating a minimum competency test, and educational producers, which we have called the "general education interests."

This issue is also different from the others discussed here, in that it has operated largely at the level of state policy, while the others have operated primarily at the level of Federal policy.

The minimum competency testing (MCT) concept, initiated at the state level by state legislatures, state boards of education, or state departments of education, or at the local level by local school boards, requires that the minimally-acceptable outputs of the elementary and secondary education system be the acquisition of certain "basic skills." The choice and content of "basic skills" varies by state, ranging from reading and computation skills to "survival skills" and "life skills." Student acquisition of these skills is assessed at various grade levels, most frequently by paper and pencil tests. Student failure on these competency tests results in withholding the graduation diploma, or the granting of a different type of diploma to senior high school students, denial of promotion to the next grade or level, and/or remediation in the skill area failed, depending on individual state policy.

First appearing in Oregon in 1972, where standards are set by local districts, some 36 states have enacted some form of MCT over the last four years (Pipho, 1979). Action on MCT is under consideration in most of the remaining states. According to the Council of State Governments (1978: 331),

> . . . the movement clearly has its beginnings at the grass-roots level of America, usually among noneducators. It is one of the few times in the history of American education that reform has started at the state policy level with legislation and state board action rather than at the college or school district level.

For this reason, perhaps the most general social conflict embodied in this issue is a struggle for control over education between those parties legally responsible for education in the states and interests determined to measure the products of the educational system, hoping to force improvement. In addition, other interests have been drawn in as well, since certain groups of students are less likely to pass an MCT.

A brief review of events leading up to the MCT movement across the states will be discussed below. Because MCT is a state issue, attention will then be directed to a legislative case history of MCT, using Illinois as an example. The controversy surrounding the concept of MCT generally, differences in the components of MCT across the states which may affect social and educational outcomes, and the positions of the national organizations on this issue will be given.

Background of Minimum Competency Testing: Several observers view MCT as the most recent attempt to apply scientific management techniques to education. Use of such techniques in education presumes that the means to reach desired ends are known, well-understood, and are under the control of educators. A great deal of legislation has assumed that education can be rationalized and has required that certain desired ends be met.

As long ago as the 1840's, students in Boston had to pass a common examination in order to receive a high school diploma (a practice that holds throughout most of Europe today). In the late 1870's, the New York legislature empowered the Regents to institute a system of examinations "to furnish a suitable standard of graduation" (Haney and Madaus, 1978: 473). The Regents' Examination has continued to exist in New York, and passing the Regents' exam has led to a better diploma.

Early excitement regarding the potential benefits of standardized tests is exemplified by this 1917 statement:

> To the citizen the (testing) movement means the erection of standards of accomplishment which are definite, and by means of which he can judge for himself as to the efficiency of the schools he helps to support. For the superintendent it means the changing of school supervision from guesswork to scientific accuracy, and the establishment of standards of work by which he may defend what he is doing. (Cubberly, quoted in Buros, 1977: 10)

Wise (1977: 3) notes that between 1963 and 1974, at least 73 accountability-type laws were passed in the states. Scientific management techniques such as systems analysis, cost-benefit analysis and zero-based budgeting were applied to education and adaptations of the scientific management approach were developed specifically for education, focusing attention on the outputs of the educational system. These have included (Wise, 1977: 12-19):

1. Performance-Based Education. Georgia's 1974 Adequate Program for Education in Georgia Act mandated the State Board of Education to establish performance-based criteria to evaluate the instructional program of the public schools with at least annual assessment on a statewide basis.

2. Competency-Based Teacher Evaluation. California's Stull Act (since replaced by less demanding legislation) was the first of a number of state laws designed to require competency-based or performance-based teacher education, certification, or evaluation. Assessment of personnel competence was related to assessment of expected student progress in each area of study and ascertainment that the employee was maintaining proper control and a suitable learning environment.

3. Assessment. An example of this variety of accountability legislation

is Michigan's 1970 program which directs attention to basic skills such as reading, mathematics, and language arts. Students with the greatest educational need in these skills are given remedial assistance, and continuous program evaluation to help each school "discover and introduce program changes that are most likely to improve the quality of education" is provided for in the law.

4. Evaluation. California's 1969 Educational Improvement Act specified that certain projects funded by the Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 be evaluated annually by cost-effectiveness measures and assessment of pupil improvement in reading, use and understanding of the English language, and the concepts of mathematics.

5. Learner Verification. Florida's law requires a publisher of curriculum materials to improve the instructional effectiveness of the product before it reaches the market, and to continue to gather data from learners during the product's market life in order to improve its quality and reliability.

At the national level, school districts receiving Title I funds under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, i.e., those school districts with high concentrations of low-income children, have been required by the Act to evaluate the effects of their Title I projects, including objective measurements of educational achievement.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress, begun in 1969, plots changes in student achievement in several areas over time, with a goal of applying the implications of such changes to national educational policy (Wise, 1977: 17).[1]

In 1972, the first educational malpractice suit was filed by a high school graduate (Peter W. v. San Francisco Unified School District). Seeking to have the California courts attribute his low level of performance in the basic skills to the negligence of the educational authorities, the student dramatized his complaint by seeking $1 million in damages. The court concluded that the plaintiff had failed to demonstrate the the school authorities had a legal "duty of care" to students, the breach of which could result in liability. The decision contains explicit disagreement with the presumption of control over the means-end relationship in educational processes embodied in scientific management accountability:

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[1] The Education Commission of the States has been the contractor for the National Assessment of Education Progress over the past decade.

> The science of pedagogy itself is fraught with different and conflicting theories of how or what a child should be taught, and any layman might - and commonly does - have his own emphatic views on the subject. The "injury" claimed here is plaintiff's inability to read and write. Substantial professional authority attests that the achievement of literacy in the schools, or its failure, are influenced by a host of factors which affect the pupil subjectively, from outside the formal teaching process, and beyond the control of its ministers. (Tractenberg, 1977: 10)

A review of state requirements as of 1974 show that most states required pupil inputs such as "satisfactory" completion of the previous grade or "progression within the limits of the student's ability," or minimum attendance requirements, for promotion and for graduation, accumulated total credits defined in time units (Tractenberg, 1977: 2-3). Nevertheless, charges of "social promotions" and the alleged meaninglessness of the modern high school diploma due to nearly-universal graduation regardless of achievement, have helped to fuel the MCT movement (Florida's law, for example, specifically bans "social promotions").

A central component of the minimum competency testing movement, which seems to have begun in earnest during the 1975-1976 academic year, is the measurement of student outputs. The publics that were dissatisfied with education and demanding MCT have been reported to be a composite of the following groups:

> - Parents, who fear their children have been passed through the system without proper concern for developing skills necessary for success in adulthood.
> - Taxpayers, who are talking accountability when they ask educators to explain why educational costs are rising while declines are reported in enrollment and test scores.
> - Employers, who are disappointed in the pool of applicants available. Many employees need unusual job training because they have difficulty . . . with such tasks as filling out forms, answering telephones and simple computation.
> - Officials in institutions of higher learning, who are unhappy about the decline in Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores and the need for remedial courses for entering freshmen.'
> - Back-to-the-basics advocates and other critics of the schools, who hope that this issue will help create support for restructuring the schools according to their particular goals. (Miller, 1978: 5)

MCT in Illinois: The rapid percolation of the MCT movement through the states apparently first surfaced formally in Illinois in the spring of 1977, when Senator John Nimrod introduced Senate Bill (S.B.) 238, a bill to require statewide MCT for high school graduation. S.B. 238 was referred to the Elementary and Secondary Education Committee of the Senate. One year later, in May of 1978, S.B. 238 was reported out of that committee and sent on to the House. No hearings had been held on the bill in the Senate.

A lobbyist for a general education group in the state capitol gave his impression of what occurred in the House:

> Nimrod's bill would have died in the House Elementary and Secondary Education Committee except that it was supported by some legislators who wouldn't be expected to support such a bill, to use it as a vehicle for amending the school aid formula. The simplest way to kill a bill is to put it into committee, that's one function of the committee system. Since this bill amended the school code, it provided a means for getting the school aid bill onto the floor of the House. This device is known as a "shell bill," i.e., it amends a section of the law, looks innocuous to opponents, gets to the floor, is amended, and during that process its purpose is changed.

However, when the bill reached the floor of the House, there was unexpectedly strong support for MCT, and its content was not changed as anticipated. Legislative aids interviewed in the statehouse reported intense, apparently unorganized constituent interest in MCT and demands for accountability of students, teachers and school systems, evidenced by a flood of letters and phone calls. These groups were not organized at the state level (though they may have been locally organized) and thus were unknown to lobbyists for the general education community who monitor the state legislature,[1] probably accounting for their surprise at the strong support for MCT when S.B. 238 reached the House floor.

Support for MCT in Illinois: One State Representative noted a relationship between declining enrollments due to demographic factors and declining public attachment to the schools. Without children of their own, or close relatives in the public school system, citizens are less likely to be involved with the schools, less willing to support them financially, and more likely to be aware only of student misbehavior in their neighborhoods, he commented. Reports of declining test scores in the media, and higher education budgets despite fewer students, have exacerbated public discontent with the education system.

A State Senator noted that in his district, the proportion of senior citizens has grown substantially over the last several years. Property values there have risen greatly, and retired persons living on a fixed income in inflationary times increasingly resent the substantial proportion of local and state taxes which support the public schools. MCT for many in his constituency represents a means for making schools and students accountable to taxpayers. MCT in turn allows the legislator to demonstrate to his constituents that responsibilities have been placed on the education structure in return for very sizable education budget (more than $2 billion was budgeted for elementary and secondary education by the State of Illinois in FY 1979). What is most striking about this support, however, is that it is largely unorganized, not spearheaded by some organized group whose members depend for their livelihood on its passage or otherwise have their interests centrally affected by the policy.

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[1] It is interesting to note that one experienced general education lobbyist, asked to name groups which had supported statewide MCT, listed a major business organization, a farmers' organization, and a taxpayers' group, all of which retain professional lobbyists in the state capitol. Upon checking with these organizations, however, we learned that not only did they not support S.B. 238, they did not even formally follow its progress (many groups set up a card system to track the progress of bills they are concerned with). As one of these respondents mentioned in a telephone interview, "It's not that we're not interested, but we have limited resources and have to choose priorities. MCT wasn't one of ours."

Opposition to MCT in Illinois: By the spring of 1978, much information regarding problems with statewide MCT in those states which had first been involved in the movement had appeared in education journals. It was clear that this was a policy designed to benefit educational consumers' interests, and was not necessarily beneficial to educational producers. Four regional conferences on MCT, sponsored jointly by the Education Commission of the States and the National Institute of Education had been held in the fall of 1977, adding to the awareness that MCT is an issue with complex ramifications. The general education community in Illinois did not wish to rush into a statewide MCT.

During December of 1978, the Governor of Illinois sponsored a Conference on Education, held in Chicago and attended by over 600 interested parties from across the state. During a session on MCT at that conference, an administrator with the Illinois Office of Education reviewed the concerns of the education community in Illinois regarding statewide MCT. A summary of these concerns follows.

a) The dominant issue, according to this perspective, is local control, i.e., whether or not the schools would continue to express the needs of the local community if there were a test determined at the state level. A possible result of a state-mandated test may be a state-standardized curriculum.

b) Related to this is the problem of a limited curriculum emerging, with decreasing emphasis on subjects such as art and music. In addition, there is concern that as resources are needed to help all students pass the test, they may be redirected from such areas as hot-lunch programs and athletic competition (and the cohesive force extracurricular activities can have on community life). Shifts such as these have an impact on family life, this administrator noted, including the ability of a woman to take a job and know that her youngster is engaged in gainful activity all day.

c) "Teaching to the test" may be dictated by MCT,further affecting what is actually taught. A shortage of remedial teachers could develop, requiring teacher re-training.

d) Additional potential abuses may arise, according to this perspective, because data collection in aggregate form is sometimes used not only to evaluate and place students, or modify the curriculum, but also to evaluate teachers, administrators, schools within a district, districts compared to other districts, and states compared to other states. It is not inconceivable that distortion of test scores could occur to prevent such evaluations.

e) Further, according to this view, elitism could emerge as tests become more sophisticated, restricting alternatives for students as do the A-level examinations in England, or baccalaureat or habitur examinations on the Continent.

f) Finally, problems related to school finance were elaborated by this speaker as possible outcomes of MCT. In the first place, costs related to first developing the tests and then administering tests, in terms of testor and and student time, can be high. The cost of remediation for students failing MCT may be the highest hidden cost of MCT. There are also concerns regarding student failures as tied to the school finance formula. Michigan, for example, does this, with the State reimbursing the school district a certain sum to help pay for remediation, raising the question of "reverse rewards" (i.e., the more students fail, the more state money the district receives). The opposite approach would also raise problems: if the state rewarded districts for frequency of students passing tests, high socioeconomic suburbs would get more funds due to background characteristics of students, quite apart from the "quality" of the school.

These points summarize the arguments of the education producers. There is an additional argument made by representatives of civil rights groups: that disadvantaged blacks are more likely to fail the test, and are thus prevented from obtaining high school diplomas.

Those favoring MCT would agree that the producers' arguments are self-serving, that resistance to the test is merely resistance to being held to any standards of performance, and that performance standards are characteristic of secondary education in most countries other than the U.S. The response to civil rights groups is that a high school diploma is not an automatic right, and should imply some level of performance.

Amendment #1, A Compromise on MCT: While the education community was either opposed to the concept of MCT,or at best, wished more time to study the potential impact of MCT on the education structure in the State, several other bills on MCT, in addition to S.B. 238, had been introduced in the state legislature, and it seemed very likely that one of these would pass.

A compromise among the interests concerned with MCT was afforded through the introduction of Amendment #1 to S.B. 238. Instead of statewide testing for graduation, Amendment #1 provided for the State Board of Education to prepare procedures and materials to "encourage and assist" local school districts to voluntarily develop MCT programs. Technical assistance to local districts would be provided by the State Department of Education. The amendment called for a cost analysis, due in December of 1978, and a report from the State Board of Education to the legislature on state progress on MCT by June 30, 1980.

Testifying in support of Amendment #1, voluntary development of local MCT, at a legislative hearing were: The Illinois Office of Education, including the Chief State School Officer; the Illinois Board of Higher Education; the Illinois Association of School Administrators; the Illinois Association of School Boards; and the Illinois Principals Association.

The Illinois Federation of Teachers (affiliated with AFT) was the only organization to testify against the compromise bill. This group opposed even the modified form of MCT provided in Amendment #1, on the grounds that once the state had a testing structure in place, MCT would eventually become a statewide mandate.[1]

The political difficulty posed by this issue for the education community is reflected in the fact that the Illinois Education Association (affiliated with NEA),normally one of the most active interest groups in education in the state, chose not to testify at all. While opposed to MCT, this group feared that if Amendment #1 did not pass, a much more stringent alternative would be approved by the legislature.

The compromise incorporated in Amendment #1 passed the legislature and became law.

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[1] The national organization, AFT, however, is not opposed in principle to MCT, provided the tests fairly measure what is actually taught in schools, and that they be used as adjuncts to, not replacements for, teacher evaluation of students.

The Future of MCT in Illinois: Also at the Governor's Conference on Education in December of 1978, a State Senator commented on the compromise amendment:

> In my opinopn, this bill has bought educators some time . . . It is my honest belief that if the report called for by this law does not indicate that most school districts have a MCT program of some type (by June, 1980), and if test scores in the basics do not show significant improvement, there will be a flood of bills introduced in 1981, and one of these will pass . . . . Improvement is the basic desire . . . to accomplish this, we all, parents, teachers, administrators, board members, state officials, organizational representatives, and I want to underline that - organizational representatives - must work together . . . .

Opinions among interviewed education groups regarding the future of MCT in Illinois differed. Some respondents believe that MCT is a social movement that will have run its course by 1980.

Because of views such as the one expressed by the State Senator quoted above, other respondents believe that MCT will eventually evolve into a state-manded testing program.

Subsequent sections of this examination of MCT will examine several points at the national level. First is an examination of MCT as an example of an increasingly frequent problem for the education structure, that is, conflicting policies. Secondly, questions regarding the concept of competency testing in general are discussed. Differences in MCT across the states are discussed next. Then the fate of Congressional bills introduced during the 95th Congress which would have created a national testing program is described. Finally, an emerging national issue related to MCT is discussed.

Throughout, the positions of national organizations will be indicated where appropriate. The reader should keep in mind that it is difficult for many national-level groups in the general education community to assert simple categorical support for or opposition to MCT, since such a stance would ignore the implications of very wide differences in MCT across the states. In addition, State affiliates may be opposed to or in favor of MCT in the individual states (as seen above by the differing positions of the Illinois Federation of Teachers and its national organization, AFT), and local affiliates may disagree with the position of a state affiliate.

The Problem of Conflicting Policies: The rapid multiplication of policies affecting education in recent years, and the regulations which accompany these, creates difficulties both in assimilating the newer policies and integrating these with older, existing policies. MCT illustrates the disequilibrating impact of conflicting policies.

1. MCT does not mesh well with recent policies aimed at ensuring educational equity such as education for the handicapped, desegregation, and multicultural education programs.[1] Although some states' MCT programs include language indicating how and if a handicapped student is to take a MCT, it is not clear what effect MCT will have on the handicapped. The same questions may be raised regarding students for whom English is a second language.

In Florida, some 77% of black students failed their first attempt to pass the literacy test required for graduation, compared with 24% of whites. After remedial instruction and two more attempts, 20% of blacks and 2% of whites still had not passed (TIME, 1979: 66). Charges of "cultural bias" in tests used and fears of "resegregation," i.e., racial tracking, in remedial courses have stimulated opposition from the NAACP. NAACP's position is that since MCT's are not necessarily related to what is actually taught in the schools and their misuse may include placing all of the onus for performance on the student, rather than on the school and the quality of teaching, MCT's:

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[1] This conflict is not accidental. In part, the minimum competency movement is a reaction against the numberous policies to insure education equity, which are seen as reducing educational quality.

> . . . will have the effect of labeling black children as uneducable, assigning them to lower educational tracks . . . we are categorically opposed to unvalidated competency tests and their misuse which stigmatize and deprive children of equal educational opportunity culminating in the denial of a high school diploma . . . wherever such tests are introduced . . . the NAACP will monitor the use of such tests and seek to require that they be competently designed, fairly administered and used only as guides for improving and measuring the effectiveness of teaching in the schools. (NAACP, 1978: 9)

In fact, the NAACP has already been involved in court action in Florida, where passage of the MCT was first required for graduating seniors in 1979. Although the court decision did not oppose competency testing, it temporarily invalidated Florida's on the basis that students had been in school before the elimination of segregation (in 1971). The court ruled that Florida could require a passing grade on the test for graduation in the 1982-83 school year.

It is important to note here that not all minority groups are opposed to MCT. In some local areas, for example New York City, some minority groups have supported it. These groups

> . . . are hopeful that the establishment of standards will force school systems to find methods to provide basic skills to the large numbers of students from culturally different backgrounds who are not succeeding in the present system. (Education Commission of the States, 1978b: 3)

2. A second policy goal seemingly at loggerheads with MCT is the aim of achieving universal high school graduation in America. Less than half of the adult population of the United States had even begun high school in 1940. By 1975, however, the vast majority of the adult population had completed 12 or more years of schooling. A concern in some quarters is that students anticipating difficulties passing the required tests may drop out of high school rather than fail the tests, thus reducing the rate of high school graduation.

3. A final policy conflict is found in fears that the emphasis on the

lowest acceptable limits in MCT programs will disrupt policies aimed at high achievement. The Education Commission of the States notes that another student group of concern is the gifted, who need challenging work not provided by an emphasis on the minimum (ECS, 1978b:10).

Questions Regarding the Concept of Competency Testing: A list of possible outcomes from MCT programs has been drawn up by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP, 1976). Potential positive outcomes include carefully organized teaching and carefully designed sequential learning which could result; revised courses of study to correct identified deficiencies; broadened alternatives not requiring attendance in class; the senior year may gain more holding power because of a new focus upon requirements and options; the question, "What is a high school education?" may be squarely faced; the community will know the minimum performance required in specific subject areas for the diploma.

The Education Commission of the States points out that another promising use of MCT is an "early warning device" in identifying low-achieving students and diagnosing their problems in early grades, permitting appropriate remediation in the basic skills to take place (ECS, 1978b:7).

Potential negative outcomes included in the NASSP list are community disagreement over the nature and appropriate difficulty level of competencies; the emphasis on practical competencies may result in erosion of liberal education; the emphasis on measurable outcomes could result in less attention to outcomes that are difficult to measure; record-keeping could become burdensome to teachers and administrators.

Several national organizations endorse competency testing to the limited extent that it is utilized as only one component of a comprehensive evaluation procedure. The National Association of Secondary School Principals believes that indicators of performance, although they can strengthen the evaluation process, are insufficient by themselves as criteria because they do not constitute a complete picture (NASSP, 1975: 41). The Council of Chief State School Officers notes in its 1979 policy statements that competencies mastered by students are as important as the accumulation of credits; however, while traditional measures of achievement represent one type of measure of competency, they should not be considered either the only measure or the most acceptable measure (CCSSO, 1979:18).

Many groups in the general education community mentioned that their members are not opposed to the concept of accountability, but are concerned about the methods used. For example, the National Education Association has since 1973 favored the elimination of group standardized intelligence, aptitude and achievement testing on the grounds that they are arbitrary, biased and lack validity in measuring ability, skill and competence (NEA, 9/77).

Although the general education community has not supported MCT, the rapid adoption of forms of MCT in more than two thirds of the states demonstrates that the public perceives the basic skills and standards to be declining.[1] This perception is not ignored by the general education community, which must rely on public support. Several groups elaborated on this concern for the basic skills during interviews. For example, the issue ranked highest by the Education Commission of the States' Priorities Committee (ECS, 1978c:6) is "basic skills and educational achievement." Identifying and assisting in the development of basic skills and competencies, with attention to programs for preventing and overcoming deficiencies,is emphasized.

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[1] The decline in Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores has received much publicity. The Wirtz Commission (CEEB) investigating the decline found lower standards to be only one of the many explanations. Other causes included societal changes, large numbers of hours spent watching television, and increasing numbers of students living in unstable family situations or working at full- or part-time jobs while attending school.

The costs of remediation for students who fail MCT's are considered by many sources to be the highest of all costs associated with MCT. Not all states provide funds for remedial classes, and even when state money is available, it covers only a small portion of the costs (NSBA, 1979: 31).

Two Federal programs were most frequently mentioned during interviews as possible sources of Federal assistance. Title II of ESEA of 1978 is a "Basic Skills Improvement Program," and some respondents favored putting more money into this program in order to assist state and local educational agencies to cope with the costs of improving achievement in this area.

Title I of ESEA, the largest program in terms of funds in elementary and secondary education (with a FY 1979 appropriation of over $3 billion), was also mentioned. Less than 20% of Title I funds currently are directed to secondary schools (House,1977). Citing statistics from the National Assessment of Educational Progress, a representative of the NASSP noted at a Congressional hearing on the reauthorization of ESEA:

> . . . approximately 14% of the 17-year-old students in this country are functionally illiterate. That is to say, they cannot comprehend the material in everyday life situations, such as reading a safety report, a medicine label, etc. . . . We would hope some of these (Title I) moneys would be redirected to the secondary schools . . . with . . . minimal competency testing and its implications that older students will be identified around 9th or 10th grade as having some deficiencies, . . . Title I money could be highly useful in producing remedial programs for those students so they would in fact reach the minimal competency level by the time they graduated and would then qualify for a diploma. (NASSP, 1977: 309)

Personnel in the Office of Education also expressed interest in whether difficulties associated with MCT programs argue for shifting a greater percentage of Title I money into high schools.

Differences in MCT across the States: The pluralism in education in the states is clearly demonstrated by the wide variations in MCT policies, which differ both across and within states along several lines: state-mandated or not, local test or state test, skills tested, grade levels tested, uses of testing, and agency which sets the standards. These will be discussed briefly.

State versus local standard-setting and tests: The position of the Education Commission of the States regarding the roles of state and local level involvement in minimum competency testing is that in general, the state should establish the broad goals and objectives, setting the limits within which local districts must operate to achieve these, as well as providing funds and technical assistance to districts in program development and staff training. Latitude should be given, according to the ECS policy statement, to local districts and schools and the states should provide for local districts to have an important role in establishing standards and tests (ECS, 1978b:8).

Many states which have enacted MCT policies share the responsibility for setting of standards and testing between local and state levels. Some, however, such as New York, New Jersey, Idaho, and others, emphasize state control.

Arguments for state control include the difficulties high-mobility students may experience passing through the jurisdictions of local districts with different MCT requirements, and continuing confusion over the meaning of a high school diploma if each district identifies its own level of competencies and performance indicators (suggested by ECS, 1978b:10, and NASSP, 1976, respectively).

Arguments for local control of MCT programs include those discussed above in Illinois (i.e., continuing local control over curriculum to reflect the needs of the local community). Another is that local standards and tests are presumably the best measures of what is actually taught in the schools, and should thus minimize "teaching to the test," high failure, and drop-out rates.

Skills tested: Reading, writing, and mathematical computation are the most frequently tested "basic skills," but all are not necessarily tested in the same state. Competency in spelling, listening and communication is also measured in many states, as are a variety of other skills (for a sample of these, see Appendix).

Grade Levels tested: Most states test in more than one grade, and many test in elementary as well as secondary levels. Vermont tests in each grade. The most frequently tested level in high school seems to be 11th grade (approximately 20 states), followed by 9th grade, 12th grade, and 10th grade. Opportunities for early remediation and re-testing are in part a function of grade level at which MCT's are administered.

Uses of testing: In several states, use of MCT's is a local option. In many others, state policy suggests or determines the following uses: Promotion and graduation: Only a few states, such as Florida, mandate testing for promotion. Nearly 20 states, however, provide for MCT for graduation, many of them phasing this use in in the 1980's. At least half a dozen states will require competency testing for the graduating class of 1980 (excluding Florida). Two states provide a special diploma if the test has been passed, and two others specify that MCT's are not to be used for either promotion or graduation. Remediation: Indiana, for example, uses MCT primarily for remediation; some other state policies do not mention remediation at all.

National Testing Program: There were several bills introduced during the 95th Congress for a national testing program; the general education community at the national level was instrumental in defeating them. A spokesman for the military testified at hearings in favor of the legislation in both chambers of the Congress, citing alleged inadequate teacher training and Office of Education inattention to the basic learning skills, as well as the effects of "grade inflation" on potential recruits, as reasons for support.

Acknowledging that nationwide there has been broad public concern over the educational proficiency of students upon completion of high school, the National School Board Association opposed a national system of testing on several grounds:

> Mainly, we believe that it is inappropriate for the Federal government to determine the standards or process for high school graduation . . . not only does the (legislation) require an examination, but also specifies the kind of skills which would be tested . . . it authorizes a national commission to determine standards of proficiency for those skills. We are concerned that the end result of this legislation will be unprecedented Federal control over curriculum. (NSBA, 1977: 463)

The policy of the Council of Chief State School Officers is that state officials working with local education agencies, not the Federal government, should identify those basic competencies needed by all citizens (CCSSO, 1979: 18).

A new program entitled "Education Proficiency Standards" was included in the 1978 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Title IX, Part B) in order to assist all states to develop their own minimum competency standards. As the American Association of School Administrators pointed out to its members in a report on the reauthorization of ESEA, Congress made it clear that this new program in no way calls for establishment of a national commission or national standard (AASA, 1978: 15-16).

Thus, the national general education community has managed to ensure that MCT remains a state and local issue, at least for the time being. Nevertheless, Federal monies for proficiency standard development in the states will have an effect. As one commentator noted:

> It's sort of like saying, "We don't care whether you buy the vanilla ice cream of the strawberry. But if you buy the strawberry ice cream, we'll help you pay for it. (quoted in Haney and Madaus, 1978:476)

Special Interest versus General Interests

The issues discussed thus far (education for the handicapped, women's educational equity, desegregation, and minimum competency testing) demonstrate that the special interest groups represent a type of power which general educational interests have great difficulty counteracting.

Some of the possible reasons for the difficulty have been suggested in the discussions. One is that it is difficult to oppose the policies without appearing to resist their causes (e.g., equal rights). Another may be that general education groups often involved with several issues at once, do not always calculate accurately the possible indirect effects of policies advanced by special interests. The demands may appear relatively simple, such as equal access to education. In the case of PL 94-142, the general education community joined advocates for the handicapped to support its enactment. The potential consequences of the Act do not seem to have been realized until after the legislation had passed. Some of the states which were earliest to enact statewide, mandated competency testing programs have experienced the most problems. Here too, an idea which appeared simple later proved to have unanticipated consequences. States which have enjoyed the luxury of reflecting on the potential impact before enacting MCT have tended to inaugurate less narrow programs (or are still reflecting).

A major source of the power of the special interest groups seems to be their very specificity. It is easier for them to explain to policy-makers what they want and why they want it than it seems to be for general education groups since the latter must often tie their positions to arguments about indirect effects and or explanations of the wider educational system. At the state and Federal levels, where policy-makers may not be familiar with educational processes and the local complexities the general education community knows well, this specificity may be very persuasive. It seems likely too that the same dimension enables the particular interests to mobilize selectively for this single issue, i.e., only when their interests are concerned. The general education community, on the other hand, must monitor policy arenas continuously. As one general education lobbyist in Illinois noted:

> The problem at the state level is that we get bogged down with details, since nearly anything is fair game . . . an enormous number of new bills are introduced which could shoot down the education structure . . . .

The final issue discussed in this section on secondary education is a conflict between the public sector and the private sector in education. While the discussion focusses on tuition tax credits for families with students in private schools, the same kinds of issues discussed below have also arisen in arguments over tuition vouchers in the states, and in Federal agencies (for example, recent Internal Revenue Service hearings on withdrawing tax-exempt status from certain private educational institutions).

Tuition Tax Credits and Education Vouchers

Major battles have been fought in Congress with increasing intensity over tuition tax credits in elementary and secondary schools. The issue is crucial of course to the higher education community as well, as will be discussed in Chapter Four. Bills are often introduced which address tax credits/vouchers for both elementary-secondary schools and higher education. The eventual fate of a bill may, however, depend in part on severing these interests.

This section begins with a brief review of the history of tax credit proposals pertaining to elementary and secondary education. A second section deals with the elements of the controversy, and the positions of groups concerned with this issue.

Background: In the 1950's, the most common legislative proposals for tax relief for education expenses were bills to provide deductions from adjusted gross income for families with such expenses. Other proposals called for additional personal exemptions for each student in the family. During the 1960's tax credit proposals became increasingly popular (American Enterprise Institute, 1978: 7).

In 1970, President Nixon established the President's Panel on Nonpublic Education to study the problems of nonpublic schools and to make recommendations for legislative action. Among its recommendations was "prompt enactment by Congress of legislation to authorize Federal income tax credit to parents for part of tuition payments to nonpublic elementary and secondary schools." During the 1972 presidential campaign, President Nixon supported tuition tax credits for parents of children who attend elementary and secondary schools.

In 1976 both the Republican and Democratic platforms supported the concept of relief to students and parents at the elementary, secondary, and higher education levels. In promising aid for elementary and secondary pupils, the Democratic platform declared:

> The party renews its commitment to the support of a constitutionally acceptable method of providing tax aid for the education of all pupils in non-segregated schools in order to insure parental freedom in choosing the best education for their children. Specifically, the party will continue to advocate constitutionally permissible Federal education legislation which provides for the equitable participation in Federal programs of all low and moderate incme pupils attending the nation's schools.

The Republican platform stated:

> We favor consideration of tax credits for parents making elementary and secondary school tuition payments . . . . Diversity in education has great value . . . . Public schools

> and nonpublic schools should share an education fund on a constitutionally acceptable basis. (AEI, 1978: 3,4)

In 1975, Senator James Buckley (Cons. R-NY) proposed providing a $1000 deduction for tuition payments to institutions of higher education, vocational schools, and elementary and secondary schools. While the proposal failed, it is viewed as the forerunner of the controversial Packwood-Moynihan bill in the 95th Congress, which had 49 co-sponsors (AEI, 1978: 7-8).

During January and February of 1978, hearings on various proposals for tax credits were held by the Senate Committee on Finance and the House Committee on Ways and Means. The bill with the most support provided for a $250 tax credit to be phased in for the elementary and secondary levels, eventually reaching a maximum of $500.

The Carter Administration opposed tuition tax credits. At the elementary and secondary school level, the Administration instead proposed increasing nonpublic school students' access to programs in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (which was reauthorized at the end of the 95th Congress) and other Federal programs. Many of these recommendations were adopted.

Additional sources of opposition to tuition tax credits will be identified in the section below.

The Controversy Surrounding Public Support for Private Education and the Positions of Interest Groups: Testimony during Senate and House hearings mentioned above illustrate the relative vacuum of research information on private schools, and the relationship between private schools and public schools. For example, Senator Moynihan (New York) stated:

> I calculate the cost of the non-government system at about 22% of the government system . . . . I wouldn't be surprised if we found something like this all around the country . . . (yet) the quality of education is equivalent . . . and there are those who think for some purposes it is even superior, and these are the normal judgments about schools that go on. Opinions differ. (Senate Committee on Finance, 1978: 51)

Senator Roth (Delaware) stated:

> Have any studies been made as to the effectiveness of the private school system? . . . there have been a number of studies recently that have shown, I believe, the quality or the results of public education are quite distressing. Children are not learning to read, write, and do arithmetic as well today as they did 10 years ago . . . . What has been the trend in private schools as far as effectiveness is concerned? Have there been studies made? (Senate Committee on Finance, 1978: 70)

The arguments during Congressional hearings were intense, but positions of organizations were frequently based on little or no hard information. The arguments may be divided into four categories:[1] the composition of students in private schools, the relative costs of private and public education, educational achievement in public and private schools, and private schools' effect on the passage of school bonds in local communities.

The Composition of Students in Private Schools: Much of the debate revolved around the populations served by the public and private schools. One reason given by the National Education Association for opposition to tax credits is that non-public schools of whatever persuasion tend toward exclusivity by definition:

> They exist primarily to serve selected enrollees on some segregating basis: creed, sex, economics, intellectual capacity, race, and so forth. (Senate Finance, 1978: 653)

A similar position was taken by the Committee for Public Education and Religious Liberty. Selective admissions and retention policies which nonpublic schools may practice but public schools cannot, all too frequently result in racial segregation, according to this group. Other groups pointed out that private schools charge tuition, give scholarships and may require entrance examinations to select students.

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[1] These do not comprise all the arguments, but only those which can be addressed by this study. A major issue has been the constitutionality of tuition tax credits, but this study is irrelevant to that question.

The Council for American Private Education (CAPE) supports tuition tax credits. This group pointed out:

> CAPE and its member organizations are nonprofit and support admissions policies which are nondiscriminatory on the basis of race, color, and national origin. These organizations, by enrollment, represent some 85-90% of American private schools. (House Ways and Means, 1978: 166)

Also in response to allegations that nonpublic schools are discriminatory, the National Association of Catholic School Teachers presented statistics on Chicago's Catholic inner city schools.

> . . . 82% of the students enrolled are of minority groups, of which 55% are blacks and 39% are non-Catholics. (House Ways and Means, 1978: 94)

Americans United for Separation of Church and State testified that while many nonpublic schools are well integrated racially,

> in general they tend to serve smaller percentages of minority students than do public schools . . . non-public school parents tend to be more affluent . . . (House Ways and Means, 1978: 80)

Several organizations opposed to tuition tax credits responded to the testimony of the nonpublic organizations such as CAPE and others, pointing out that other populations which the public schools must serve by law may not be represented in the private schools. The National School Boards Association, for example, testified,

> . . . I wonder if the private schools are suggesting that they compete with us for racial equality and racial integration. If they wish to compete with us let them compete in educating the handicapped children required by 94-142 . . . compete with us for bilingual education . . . compete with us for education of low-income families . . . compete with us for vocational-technical students . . . (House Ways and Means, 1978: 441)

The American Federation of Teachers, similarly opposed to tax credits, added that private schools are not required to deal with costs such as Title

IX (women's equity) entail. AFT's position is that private schools educate students who are easiest and cheapest to educate. An additional advantage in the composition of the students private schools serve was noted:

> Public schools . . . especially . . . in the cities, have a discipline problem that grows by the day, and much Federal action in that area has not been helpful - it has been interpreted on the local level to mean that teachers have no official support when they try to establish discipline . . . private schools . . . can enforce discipline. They are not forced to go through various due process, legalistic types of hearings . . . . They can suspend or even force out students who are discipline problems. (Senate Finance, 1978: 345)

In an effort to show that the beneficiaries of tuition tax credits would not be the wealthy, the National Association of Independent Schools, a member of CAPE, used Census data (1974) to show that more than 50% of children attending private schools in the country come from families with incomes of less than $15,000. The representative of this group noted that in the school he heads, some 60 to 70% of families reported both parents holding jobs (House Ways and Means, 1978: 170-1).

The Relative Costs of Private and Public Education: The hearings contained extensive testimony regarding the costs of parochial and public schools. This was mentioned by proponents of tuition tax credits as a good reason for supporting students in nonpublic education. The comments of Senator Richard S. Schweiker (Pennsylvania) are representative:

> The average cost of educating a child at a public school is greater than the average cost of educating a student at a nonpublic school. Particularly, the parochial schools have demonstrated that they can provide top quality education at a low cost per student . . . . In New York City in 1976, it cost, on the average, $2,647 to educate a child in the public schools as opposed to $462 in the Catholic schools. (Senate Finance, 1978: 59)

Should the Catholic schools (which contain about 2/3 of all private school students) be forced to close due to financial difficulties, this argument usually continues, the cost of educating children who attend them would cost considerably more than the $500 cost of tax credits.

As noted above, the Carter Administration opposed tax credits. During his testimony (former) HEW Secretary Joseph A. Califano, Jr. pointed out that there may be hidden supports for the low estimates of the cost of parochial education:

> It is hard to make estimates, but about half the money collected in the Sunday collections at Catholic parishes around this country goes to support the school in the parish. (Ways and Means, 1978: 25)

The American Federation of Teachers pointed out another difference between public and private schools affecting the cost of education, i.e., teacher salaries:

> (Private schools) certainly have an advantage in terms of cost comparisons, in that their faculties are - teachers I am talking about, whom I represent - paid considerably less than teachers in the public sector. (Senate Finance, 1978: 343)

Educational Achievement in Public and Private Schools: In addition to superior cost-effectiveness, many proponents of tuition tax credits argue that private school education results in higher achievement for students. The Federation of Catholic Teachers Local 2092, affiliated with the American Federation of Teachers, testified that those groups which would deny private schools families some form of help ignore the fact that

> parochial and other private schools provide a great service to all citizens of this nation. We, too, teach children to read and write - often times better than public schools. (House Ways and Means, 1978: 86)

Opponents mentioned above pointed out that the composition of students may be very different in public and private schools. Factors such as race, socioeconomic status, and so on would have to be held constant before such comparisons could appropriately be made. Preserve Our Public Schools pointed out in its testimony:

> Public schools must accept all children who reside within their district boundaries. They cannot reject or choose their students . . . . Comparative achievement statistics reflect not how bad the public schools are but how good selective private schools can be. (House Ways and Means, 1978: 176)

The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), on the other hand, testified that the quality of a school makes a difference in achievement, and that a good school can overcome disadvantaged backgrounds:

> While in CORE's community school in the Bronx . . . children are reading at approximately grade level, children in the neighboring public schools are one to two years behind . . . . Some say the problem is that inner-city children can't learn well because of their family problems and the contions of society. That position is, frankly, bunk . . . . (House Ways and Means, 1978: 359).

Private Schools and Public School Bonds: Several local general education groups were concerned with a relationship between private schools in a community and passage of public school bonds, fearing that a private school alternative attenuates support for the public school system. The National School Board Association noted that local property taxes are highly sensitive to voter reactions, in part because taxpayers do not vote on Federal and state budgets, and therefore express general anti-tax sentiments through property tax votes. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, an opponent of tuition tax credits, expressed concern with the issue of public school bonds and private schools in a community. An opposite orientation was presented by Senator Moynihan (New York), a sponsor of the tuition tax credit bill:

> . . . I love the PTA . . . but really, need you always come in and suggest that popular support for the public school system is directly correlated with the degree to which it attains monopoly, and that to the degree that there are alternatives available support will diminish . . . . (I would submit as an equally plausible hypothesis) the higher the proportion of school-aged children in parochial schools, the higher the level of support for the public schools.

Other issues raised during the hearings included differences in parental involvement in student education between public and private schools. Some believe, for example, that private school parents are more engaged with their children and have more interest in their educational achievement, one indicator of this being the fact that they are willing to pay tuitions to private schools when a public alternative is free. Flight to private education in districts where there is court-ordered school desegregation was another issue of concern. Finally, differences in the incidence of teacher strikes between public and private schools were raised, with questions on the effects of such differences on educational outcomes.

Tuition tax credits for elementary and secondary education did not pass in the 95th Congress. Anticipating that the issue will emerge again in the 96th Congress, a number of national associations opposed to tuition tax credits have formed "The National Coalition to Save Public Education," coordinated by the PTA. (See attached Appendix for a list of member organizations.) From the perspective of the National PTA, the struggle over tuition tax credits involves creation of a financial incentive to choose private schools, a shift in public policy away from support for public education. One argument of supporters of tuition tax credits is that financial support for parents who could not otherwise afford private schools would encourage their efforts to obtain a better education for their children. This argument has some appeal for parents and others frustrated with the difficulty of bringing about changes in the public schools, the PTA acknowledges, but the PTA does not believe tuition tax credits are the answer:

> Some 90% of American school children attend public schools. If tuition tax credits were made available, how many more would leave the pulic schools in search of a better education: 2 percent? 8 percent? 10 or 15 percent? . . . Should (the remaining children in public schools) be

> abandoned to an education in what would surely be a severly deteriorated public school system if tuition tax credits were enacted? . . . parents should work together to improve their schools, not abandon them one by one. (PTA, 1979: 8-9)

Members of the Coalition to Save Public Education include organizations devoted to a variety of causes, including labor, civil rights, education and religion: their arguments against tax credits include the negative effects they anticipate tax credits would have on the public schools, increased inequality of educational opportunity, and the separation of Church and State issue.

Vouchers in Education: An issue closely related to tuition tax credits, supported and opposed by largely the same sets of groups, is that of educational vouchers. Voucher proposals differ somewhat, but in the prospective California proposal, each child may choose to attend the public school to which assigned, or to attend a private or public "scholarship school." For each child's enrollment, the school is reimbursed an amount equal to 95% of the previous year's per pupil expenditure in the public schools.

School vouchers have been advocated by economic conservatives like Milton Friedman and by economic liberals like Christopher Jencks and John Coons. Coons designed the plaintiff's brief in the Serrano case for equal school financing in California; he has now designed a referendum for vouchers in California intended to be voted on in the 1980 general election.

A school voucher plan as an issue differs from tuition tax credits and most of the others discussed in this chapter. It is not, and could hardly be, an issue at the Federal level, because it involves a fundamental change in the way a state exercises its constitutional responsibility in education. The change is a change from providing a public service ("free public education") to providing resources (a "scholarship" or "voucher") with which the family can purchase the services on a market. Voucher plans have not been important issues in the legislature. It is by petition that a proposal in Michigan in 1978 was placed on the ballot, to be voted in popular referendum (where it was defeated). It is by petition that supporters of the California proposal are intending to have it placed on the ballot. In the legislatures, the general education interests, which are largely education producer interests, are strong and might be expected to be able to inhibit such a proposal, for it runs directly counter to their interests. A voucher plan could be introduced at the local level subject to state ratification; but it is fundamentally a state-level issue. Although no voucher proposals have succeeded, increasingly they are discussed; and it is quite possible that the California proposal will be placed on the ballot and will succeed.

A voucher plan is a good example of an educational policy that at the present can only be addressed indirectly by policy research. It is not in existence anywhere in the United States, and can thus not be compared to a traditional public school system. Although certain components of a voucher plan, such as private schools, do exist, they themselves might be greatly changed by the existence of vouchers. New kinds of schools might arise; existing schools might find themselves under state and Federal regulations as constraining as those currently disturbing the public school educational community.

Nevertheless, certain issues are raised by proponents and opponents of vouchers, and some of these can be studied by policy research. The issues are largely those that have arisen with tuition tax credits, and discussed above. The potential utility of the present research for examining the issues will be treated in Chapter Five.

Appendix 1

Advocacy Groups for the Handicapped

American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities
American Council of the Blind
American Federation for the Blind
American Occupational Therapy Association
American Speech and Hearing Association
Association for Children with Learning Disabilities
Closer Look,The Parents' Campaign for Handicapped Children and Youth
Consortium Concerned with the Developmentally Disabled
Council for Exceptional Children
Council on Education of the Deaf
Council of State Administrators of Vocational Rehabilitation
Disabilities Rights Center
Epilepsy Foundation of America
Goodwill Industries of America
The Joseph Kennedy Foundation
Mental Health Law Project
National Association for Children with Learning Disabilities
National Association of the Deaf
National Association for the Deaf-Blind
National Association for Retarded Citizens
National Association of State Directors of Special Education
National Center for Law and the Deaf
National Center for Law and the Handicapped
National Council on Rehabilitative Education
National Easter Seal Society
National Federation of the Blind
United Cerebral Palsy Association
White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals

Appendix 2

National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education,[1]

November 1978

American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation
American Association of Community and Junior Colleges
American Association of School Administrators
American Association of University Professors
American Association of University Women
American Civil Liberties Union
American Council on Education, Office of Women in Higher Education
American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees
American Home Economics Association
American Personnel and Guidance Association
American Psychological Association, Committee on Women
Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women
Association of American Colleges, Project on the Status and Education of Women
Center for Law and Social Policy, Women's Rights Project
Coalition for Children and Youth
Federation of Organizations for Professional Women
Girl Scouts of the USA
Intercollegiate Association for Women Students
Lawyer's Committee for Civil Rights Under the Law, Federal Education Project
League of Women Voters
LULAC National Education Service Centers, Women's Desk
Mexican American Women's National Association
National Advisory Committee for Women
National Advisory Council on Women's Programs
National Association for Girls and Women in Sports
National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors
National Association of Commissions for Women
National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges
National Commission on Working Women, Center for Women and Work
National Council of Jewish Women
National Council of Negro Women, Commission on Higher Education
National Education Association
National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc.
National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education
National Organization for Women
NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund, PEER
National Urban League
National Women's Political Caucus

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[1] This coalition contains not only groups with a special interest in women's education, but also a number of general interest groups.

Appendix 2, cont'.

National Women's Studies Association
Secretary's Advisory Committee on the Rights and Responsibilities of Women
Sociologists for Women in Society
United States Student Association
Wider Opportunities for Women
Women's College Coalition
Women's Equity Action League
Women's Legal Defense Fund, Inc.
Women's Lobby

Appendix 3

Additional Competency Requirements

(NASSP, 1979)

- Connecticut
  - Language arts
- Florida
  - (State sample only)
  - Consumer skills
- Georgia
  - Career development
  - Logical reasoning
  - Composition
- Hawaii
  - Decision making
  - Problem solving
  - Independence in learning
  - Physical and emotional health
  - Career development
  - Responsibility to self and others
- Indiana
  - Government
  - Consumer skills
  - Science
- Kentucky
  - Language skills
  - Study skills
- Maryland
  - Survival skills
  - Work
  - Leisure
  - Citizenship
- Massachusetts
  - Speaking
- Michigan
  - (Grades 4 & 7 only)
  - Science
  - Social studies
  - Art
  - Music
  - Health Education
- Missouri
  - Government
  - Economics
  - Consumer skills
- Montana
  - Government, history
  - Reasoning
  - Consumer skills
  - Science
  - Health, drugs
- New Hampshire
  - Language arts
  - Mathematics
  - U.S. and N.H. government and history
- New Mexico
  - Government, history
  - Consumer skills
  - Health, drugs
  - Problem solving
  - Community resources
- North Carolina
  - Language skills
- Oregon
  - Analyzing
  - (For Class of 1981)
  - Use basic scientific and technological processes
  - Develop and maintain a healthy mind and body
  - Be an informed citizen in the community, state, and nation
  - Be an informed citizen in interaction with the environment
  - Be an informed citizen on streets and highways
  - Be an informed consumer of goods and services
  - Function within an occupation or continue education leading to career

Appendix 3, cont'.

Vermont
  Reasoning

Virginia
  Job entry skills

Tennessee
  Grammar

Utah
  Problem solving
  Governmental processes
  Consumer skills

Wyoming
  Democratic governance and free enterprise

Appendix 4

Members of "The National Coalition to Save Public Education,"

Opposed to Tuition Tax Credits

American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
American Association of School Administrators
American Civil Liberties Union
American Ethical Union
American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees
American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO
American Humanist Association
American Jewish Congress
Americans for Democratic Action
Americans United for Separation of Church and State
A. Philip Randolph Institute
Baptist Joint Committee on Public Affairs
Coalition of Labor Union Women
Council for Educational Development and Research (CEDAR)
Council for Exceptional Children
Council of Chief State School Officers
Council of Great City Schools
Division of Homeland Ministries, Christian Church (Disciples of Christ)
Federal Education Project of the Lawyers Committee for Civil Rights Under Law
Horace Mann League
Labor Council for Latin American Advancement
National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
National Association for Hearing and Speech Action
National Association of Elementary School Principals
National Association of Secondary School Principals
National Association of State Boards of Education
National Coalition for Public Education and Religious Liberty
National Committee for Citizens in Education
National Congress of Parents and Teachers
National Council of Churches
National Council of Jewish Women
National Council of Senior Citizens
National Education Association
National School Boards Association
National Urban Coalition
National Urban League
Student National Education Association
Union of American Hebrew Congregations
Unitarian Universalist Association
United Auto Workers
United Methodist Church/Board of Church and Society
United States Student Association

CHAPTER THREE

POSTSECONDARY NON-EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY

Approximately half of the high school graduates in the United States go on to college but only a quarter ever complete their education program and many leave school for a while before returning in order to graduate. The overwhelming majority of young adults were, and are, occupied in a variety of other post-secondary activities. Most are in the labor force, either working or searching for work. Others are in the military. In 1970, some 18% of the male population 20-24 years old were in the military. By 1977 this proportion declined to only 8% of this population group. This large decline in military participation has not led, however, to increases in college enrollment rates; to the contrary, the end of the Viet Nam war and the use of college as an escape hatch from it led to a decline in college participation rates among white males. Thus the proportion in other post-secondary activities has increased.

Many young adults are engaged in educational or training activities other than college education. Of these, the largest number are in private vocational, commercial, and technical schools (profit-making institutions) preparing for more than 200 different occupations, mostly in programs that can be completed in one year. Some attempt to acquire certain occupational skills at their own speed through a variety of correspondence courses. Still others, who are not in higher education institutions, are apprentices training for one of the more than 400 occupations for which apprenticeship programs exist. They train for periods of 2-5 years before they are eligible for certification. Once granted, the certificate of completion of apprenticeship usually assures the graduate of excellent job opportunities and high wages. Finally, many young adults participate in employer training programs. A large number of employers have some form of on-the-job training; large corporations have extensive programs.

The common element in this amalgam of programs and learning environments is that in all cases individuals train for very specific occupations which they intend to pursue or are already pursuing. But these programs don't merely represent a category of post-secondary activity. They reflect, in part, some problems that confront youth upon completion of high school. High school graduates have very little knowledge of,and even less experience with, the world of work. Their occupational goals are uncertain. It has often been noted that youth have very little preparation for their adult roles; some suggest that recent trends in employment and unemployment reflect the increasing difficulties of transition to adulthood confronting today's youth.

The issue of unemployment and particularly unemployment of minority youth (which in some areas is higher than 35%) is one of the most disturbing features of the national economic situation. On the academic level it has been dealt with extensively by economists over the past decade. As a policy issue youth unemployment has been the subject of numerous congressional reports. Yet little consensus has developed both with regard to the causes of this phenomenon and the proper policies to deal with the issue. The demographic trend whereby the teenage population grew almost three times as fast as the population 20 years and over during the years 1956-1974 is often cited as a determinant of the difficulties encountered by youth when joining the labor force. And in fact, there was an explosion in college attendance during that period, at least part of which was due to absorption by colleges of a labor surplus among youth. Apart from demographic changes, the weak attachment of youth to the labor force, high quit rates and movements in and out of the labor force, are often discussed as explanatory factors of higher unemployment rates for youth. In fact, some observers now view higher youth unemployment rates as an attribute of youth. They emphasize the inexperience of youth and uncertain career goals as contributing to this. Some employers are simply reluctant to employ teenage youth and this is particularly true for individuals who have no marketable skills. Minimum wage, as well, is often cited in this context as a barrier to more opportunities for employment. It is argued that along with payroll taxes, fringe benefits, and insurance costs, minimum wage raises the costs to a point where it is not profitable for the employer to employ an untrained, low-productivity worker and more youth than individuals from any other age group fall into this category.

There are a variety of policies that are relevant to these general problems of youth. And there are a number of groups that have an interest in these policies - either because of their effects on youth or because of their effects on others. It is these groups which among them shape the direction of policies concerning youth employment and training for employment. Some of these groups are mentioned below.

Groups and Organizations with Interests in Youth Employment and Training Policy

The AFL-CIO, representing over 100 unions and fourteen million workers, has a committee on education and a department that is concerned primarily with youth and education policy. On the business side, the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, representing 3600 Chambers of Commerce and trade associations and 70,000 business firms, also pays particular attention to education, and both organizations actively participate in public debate on education and particularly on those issues that concern the training and employment of youth. The National Association of Manufacturers is less active where specific policies are concerned, and in most cases takes a similar position to that of the Chamber of Commerce. The American Farm Bureau, a federation of county farm bureaus representing some 3 million members, has similar concerns to that of other employers and has been particularly active at the national level in policy debates concerning sub-minimum wage for youth.

Other organizations at the local, state, and national levels are active in the policy debate not only because of general concern about the problems confronting youth but also because of direct involvement in implementing various programs. The National Alliance of Business - a coalition of executives from industry, the government and organized labor formed in 1968 - has organized some 50,000 companies all over the country to participate in a number of programs designed to increase employment opportunities and some training. While actual operation takes place in 120 major cities, the national headquarters acts to secure more Federal funds and develop new programs aimed to alleviate the unemployment problem. Community action groups such as the National Urban Coalition , a non-membership organization with close to 40 local groups, and the National Urban League, with 50,000 members and more than 100 local groups, are most prominent among community organizations. Much of their emphasis is on improving the position of minorities and economically disadvantaged groups and a major part of their effort is directed towards ensuring that various policies take into account the special needs of the urban setting. They are joined in this effort by the U.S. Conference of Mayors and the National League of Cities, who in the past decade were able to shift the locus of administration of manpower programs from the state to the local level.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA) and the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 are, today, the largest federal programs that attempt to deal with problems of youth (along with other population groups). These programs touch upon practically every training and employment program at the state and local level and thus local affiliates of interest groups already mentioned are drawn into policy decision making at different levels.

As mentioned earlier, many of the problems encountered by youth after high school have to do with preparation and training for work. At the post-secondary level, much of this is done in for-profit technical schools. Most of these are represented either by the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools or by the National Association of Trade and Technical Schools. These are organized much along the lines of the higher education community. The former represents 500 institutions that specialize in education for business occupations (e.g., accounting, secretarial), and the latter also has a membership of 500 schools that specialize in such areas as sales, architecture, mechanics, etc. The concern of these organizations, similar to that of many higher education organizations, has to do with tax credits, financial assistance to students, and high enrollments.

Finally, much of the post-secondary activity of individuals and the facility with which youth makes the transition to adulthood depends on the preparation received in earlier stages - most notably during the secondary education years. We focus in this section on one particular sector of the education community - that of vocational education - since vocational education is often viewed as a central component in the preparation for work. Vocational programs involve job and skill training and since the earliest days of vocational education, improving employability, productivity and the creation of jobs have been part of the rationale for these programs.

The vocational education community is kept distinct, for the most part, from general education through separate programs, separate personnel, and separate funds. Thus, much of the organizational structure in vocational education is parallel to that of general education. Vocational educators have state associations which are affiliated with the national organization, the American Vocational Association. This organization, which has more than 50,000 members, including teachers, administrators and supervisors, is the chief lobbying organization for vocational education and possibly the most influential. This organization is interested in the development and improvement of vocational, technical and practical arts education, and in the political arena it is most active in promoting vocational education legislation and securing funds for vocational programs. Vocational education clubs such as Future Farmers of America, Future Business Leaders of America, Future Homemakers of America, Vocational Industrial Clubs of America, Distributive Education Clubs of America, Health Occupations Students of America, and the Association of Industrial Arts Students of America are student clubs organized around specific vocational programs. Although they are not lobbying organizations, they strongly support the American Vocational Association in its legislative efforts and testify occasionally during congressional hearings. The National Assocation of State Directors of Vocational Education, founded in 1920, represents state interests in the area of vocational education and is primarily concerned about the allocation of funds to the states and state vs. local and Federal control of vocational programs.

Vocational eductors also have many assocations, defined according to educational activity (teacher, supervisor, etc.) and subject of teaching. These are not very active politically and many of the members are likely to belong to the American Vocational Association as well. A somewhat different organization is the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, created by Congress through the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. The Council is charged by law to review and advise the President, Congress, Secretary, and Commissioner concerning the administration and operation of vocational education. Thus, interest groups in this area range from teacher organizations to student organizations to state and federal agencies. All have been active to a greater or lesser extent in the political debate around the preparation of youth for work, and we try to illustrate this in the following sections which highlight specific policy issues.

One last major interest group which should be mentioned at this point is the military. Military service is closely related to other post-secondary activities in that they all draw from the same pool of young adults. Thus, in trying to recruit individuals the military competes with higher education, other forms of post-secondary education, and the labor force. It is therefore likely that policies designed to deal with problems in one sector (say the labor force) will have an effect on the others as well. The military, then, is involved in policy debates affecting recruitment and manpower needed to maintain national security. But the military is also concerned about policies related to training and preparation for work since a large number of persons who join the military receive training in occupations they will pursue once entering the labor force.

The policy issues and specific programs to be discussed in the following pages are derived from the general problem area just discussed. They were elaborated in extensive interviews with representatives of many organizations and are described as the most central issues by many of the interest groups. Obviously, the area is more complex and certain narrow-focussed programs may be of particular importance to individual organizations, but on the whole the following five issues seem to draw the greatest attention in this policy arena.

Two of the policies are an integral part of the education system. These are 1) Vocational Education and 2) Career Education. The two are quite distinct as far as legislation is concerned but not always in practice. They bear a direct relationship to work and employment and therefore receive much attention from interest groups outside the education community as well as those within. 3) The third issue concerns the employment and training programs that are part of the national manpower policies. While these programs are mostly of concern to non-educational interest groups, they have a direct impact on high school youth and young adults and recently have had an impact on high school programs as well. 4) The implications of a different minimum wage for youth will be discussed next. This issue is closely related to the above-mentioned programs but it is also a central policy issue in its own right. 5) The last policy issue to be studied here is one that is only now being formulated in the national policy arena. This is the question of military and national service. Only preliminary information on the position of different interested parties and the likely form a policy may take are available at present, but any program that might possibly evolve from this public debate is likely to have an important impact on those completing high school in the near future.

Vocational Education

Vocational education as viewed by its proponents ". . . offers a powerful tool for job and skill training able to contribute significantly to the national concerns of productivity, employment, job creation, and long-term economic planning" (Bottoms, 1979). Thus it is offered as a policy to alleviate one of the most serious problems confronting today's youth - the transition from school to the world of work. As a policy issue, vocational education first received attention at the national level over a century ago, with the passage of the Merrill Act of 1862. This legislation provided grants of land to the states to endow and maintain colleges devoted to the Agricultural and Mechanical arts. Higher education thus opened its doors to a segment of the population that would not have otherwise received any college education. It was expected by advocates of this legislation that this innovation in higher education would bring about changes at the secondary level as well and that vocational classes would be taught in order to prepare students for these land-grant colleges. However, this did not happen. High school educators, many of whom were in districts of one-teacher schools, did not want to take upon themselves to teach about the world of work. More than half a century went by before legislation was proposed at the national level concerning vocational education in secondary schools (it should be pointed out that some forms of vocational education existed prior to these efforts, but they were mostly a result of isolated initiatives at the local level).

The most significant aspect of vocational education at this early stage is'that it was introduced and promoted mostly by groups outside education (i.e., agriculture, industry, government). The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education became an early focal point of this effort. In 1917, the Smith-Hughes Act provided approximately $7 million annually to vocational education, and the states received their share of the funds upon submission of an appropriate plan of action. The Secretary of Commerce, Secretary of Labor, and the Commissioner of Education were jointly responsible for the funds. Of the $6 million appropriated for training programs, half went to agricultural training and the other half to homemaking, trade and industrial education.

Between 1917 and 1947 Vocational Education came up in all but one session of the Congress. A number of interesting points may be observed during this period:

1. Only in the mid-thirties did the American Vocational Association - established in 1925 - become an active and noticeable advocate of vocational education;

2. The overwhelming majority of bills introduced which concerned vocational education were sponsored by legislators from Southern agricultural states (Senator George from Georgia, Congressman Ellzey from Mississippi and Congressman Jeffers from Alabama are only a sample of them);

3. During this period bills on vocational education were referred to the Senate Committee on Agriculture and Forestry. It wasn't until 1939-40 that the Office of Education became involved in vocational education, when it was asked to submit budget estimates for a program of vocational education training for war production workers.

Approximately $1 billion was authorized at the federal level for vocational education for 1978, though only $600 million was actually appropriated. Combined with state and local funds, over $5 billion was available for vocational education programs. Even so, members of the vocational education community are quick to point out that the present level of resources allows them to accommodate only one-third of the public secondary school student body, whereas they estimate that as many as half the students would like to participate in these programs. The American Vocational Association (AVA), an organization of teachers, supervisors, and administrators in vocational education, is the chief lobbying organization for vocational education and an organization with considerable influence in Congress. This organization enjoys the support of all vocational youth clubs (i.e., Future Business leaders of America, Future Farmers of America, Future Homemakers of America, Vocational Industrial Clubs of America, Distributive Education Clubs of America, Health Occupation Students of America, and the Association of Industrial Arts Students). In 1975 the American Vocational Association passed a resolution that called for the U.S. Office of Education's recognition of the clubs as part of the curriculum. The issue was raised during the vocational education amendments of 1976, and Congress passed the bill, which recognizes and financially supports the vocational education clubs. The clubs are student organizations but teachers serve as club advisers.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963, amended in 1968 and 1976, is the basis of present involvement of the Federal government in vocational education. The legislation was enacted along with other bills such as the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 in an attempt to cope with mounting economic problems and the need for more technological training. The Act affirmed the commitment of the government to vocational education and was much broader in scope than the previous programs, which emphasized training in selected occupational categories.

The relationship of vocational education to the larger education community has changed little since 1917. Vocational education started out very much as a parallel system to that which already existed in the late 19th century. In many cases separate schools were established for vocational education, but even in this early period there were educators and community groups who opposed this trend. Calls for integrating vocational education into general education policy date back to the early days of public education in the United States. At the beginning of this century John Dewey urged strongly that a general program of education be developed, which would include both vocational and basic education (we will return to this issue when discussing career education policies). But this view of vocational education is not shared by all. During the last decades of the nineteenth century, William E. Harris of the National Education Association (later to become U.S. Commissioner of Education) rejected manual training because it did not contribute to the development of intelligence. In 1976 a panel of the National Education Association stated that " . . . school should focus on general requirements of all vocations and on serial or recurring preparation . . . vocational preparation must avoid locking people into wrong jobs" (NEA Panel, 1976). It was further argued that most vocational education can best be acquired outside of school. At the philosophical level, there seems to be a disagreement between teachers (as represented by the NEA) and vocational educators with regard to the role of vocational education. This disagreement is not always evident at the political level, for both the National Education Association and the American Vocational Association join other education organizations in the Committee for Full Funding of Education Programs. In this context, the education community as a whole seeks to obtain maximum funds for education through mutual support of each other's requests.

In addition to support within the educational community vocational education receives strong support from non-educational interest groups. Earlier it was pointed out that business and agriculture, most likely, did more than other groups to promote vocational education at the national level. The strong support of the agricultural South probably explains how for many years agricultural training received about half of the training appropriations, despite the fact that population changes constantly reduced the proportion of this sector relative to the total society. In recent years, business, as represented by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, has concentrated its efforts in education on career education, and there seems to be less interest in vocational programs, though they still support appropriations for vocational education. Much stronger support is received from labor. In 1977 the AFL-CIO in its Policy Resolutions called upon " . . . Congress to appropriate authorized funding levels for vocational education, and urge the Carter Administration to provide determined leadership required to make the programs work." Together with labor, the vocational education community successfully fought the administration's budget office proposal to trim back the vocational education basic grant, and funds were restored at their original level.

In 1979 the American Vocational Association asked Congress for $300 million in addition to $600 million already received. Justifying this sort of request is becoming increasingly difficult in light of criticisms directed at vocational education. Only recently the former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, Joseph Califano, stated that "vocational education is one of the Department's [HEW] least effective programs and federal funding should be held level or 'reduced'."[1] The Executive Director of the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education stated in an interview that the Council might not support the American Vocational Association's request for more funds (even though this will be interpreted as a negative position), since it cannot prove that the money is really needed and will make a difference. It therefore is becoming more important for vocational education to show that it does make a difference for the individual.

A more specific issue that is frequently addressed in the area of vocational education is that of race and sex discrimination. Prior to 1976, federal funds allocated to states for vocational education were categorized to a certain extent according to programs. Thus, for example, a certain proportion of federal support would have to be spend on agriculture programs. Nevertheless, most of the funds were allocated at the state agency's discretion. Furthermore, there was little control over the distribution of students among the various programs, and this has been a major source of criticism in recent years. The League of Women Voters of the United States - a voluntary organization of 135,000 individuals concerned with legislative issues; the American Association of University Women's Task Force for Women's Equity; and the Coalition of Women and Girls in Education all expressed concern about sex stereotyping and about directing female students into vocational programs where they are trained for less prestigious, lower-paying jobs than males. The National Congress of American Indians, a national private membership association of Indians representing 450,000 Indians from 150 tribes, expressed the belief that Indians have been tracked into vocational programs, resulting in less access to higher education and prestigious jobs. Similar arguments have been raised by organizations representing blacks, such as the NAACP Legal Defense and Education Fund, the legal arm of the civil rights movement.

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[1] In a letter to participants of a conference on FY79 appropriations for Education.

It should be made clear that the composition of the student body in vocational education is by no means determined by vocational educators themselves. A higher proportion of low income students in vocational education or a higher proportion of females or minorities than of males or whites, in particular programs may reflect student choices as well as counselling and tracking policies of the school as a whole. However, these interest groups argue that the present structure of the programs and the way they have been funded enabled such differentiation of students and they argue therefore for greater equity. Efforts of these organizations resulted in specific categorical funding in the amendments to the Vocational Education Act in 1976 for disadvantaged, for bilingual vocational education and funds to assist in overcoming sex bias. The general intention of Congress in 1976 was to abolish categorical fundings so that states would receive lump sums to distribute as they saw fit, rather than funds which had already been earmarked by Congress. Although a number of categories were consolidated, pressure from minority and women's rights organizations created new categories, in order not to leave to the discretion of state vocational education agencies the allocations of funds to reduce sex stereotyping and to improve vocational education of minorities.

According to minority and women's interest groups, the legislation of 1976 has not changed the situation much, but vocational educators would disagree. Neither side has systematic evidence to support its position, and the issue remains one that will likely arise in future vocational education legislation.

In concluding, it should be noted that Federal policy in vocational education is intended as a catalyst to induce state and local agencies to set priorities, develop plans and increase funding for vocational education. Approximately 90% of the vocational education funds are state and local funds and the Federal government contributes only slightly over 10%. In different states the ratio may differ considerably from this. In 1976 Florida spent $289 million on vocational education of which only 8 million (less than 3%) was Federal money. In New York, more than 95% of the vocational funds were state and local. On the other hand, some states, such as Wyoming, South Dakota, Idaho, or Nebraska receive 25-30% of their vocational education funds from the Federal government. In order to receive Federal funds states must submit programs which in a sense become contracts with the Office of Education in each of the categories funded. It is then the State Education Agency's (usually the State Board of Education or State Board of Vocational Education) responsibility to distribute the funds within the state.

Aside from increasing the total funding for vocational education, it is also the intention of Federal programs to set priorities that are not otherwise met by state plans. Special emphasis has been put on vocational education for disadvantaged and the handicapped, and recently (as was mentioned above) sex and race discrimination were highlighted as well. An Overview of State Advisory Councils on Vocational Education Reports for 1977 shows that as many as half the states exhibted concerns about disadvantaged and the handicapped and women/sex equity. In Arizona, for instance, the State Advisory Council notes that "A higher percentage of disadvantaged and handicapped must be brought into training programs. Bilingual programs must be expanded and sex bias and sex stereotyping eliminated." In Pennsylvania, all schools were required to report on actual steps taken to eliminate bias. Thus issues that are of importance at the national level are of concern at the state level as well. Access to vocational education and outcomes of training in terms of job placement also receive wide attention at the state level. But by far the question of funding is of greatest concern to the states: 43 State Advisory Councils mention this in their reports. In most cases these are recommendations to State Departments of Education or state legislatures to increase funding or approve categorical funding for vocational education.

Career Education

As a philosophical or educational issue, the question of career education dates back to the early days of public education in the United States. It has to do with the orientation of education towards adult life and particularly towards the world of work. It involves a certain mix of competence in the basic skills (the three R's), as well as training and providing information that will ensure employability, if desired, upon graduation. Periodically, social groups or the general public would demand that these notions receive more attention on the part of the education system. From the beginning of this century and for more than 50 years, these pressures were commonly dealt with through Vocational Education legislation. Career education has become a unique policy issue only less than a decade ago.

The present usage of the term "career education" may be traced to an address given by Sidney Marland, Jr., then U.S. Commissioner of Education, at the annual convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals in Houston, Texas (January 21, 1971). The concept was not defined at the time in order that it might be shaped by public debate. Yet, what the Office of Education seemed to mean by career education was that academic education, general education, and vocational education in high school should be combined into a coherent program available to all students. This in effect would mean a broadening of college preparatory programs to include some work more specifically oriented to occupational career, and a broadening of vocational programs to be less bound to a specific occupation. Furthermore, the whole education program should have a strong orientation towards the world of work with the specifics changing according to the age of the students. Nevertheless, career education has meant different things to different school systems.

In 1974 career education became a mandated program as part of the Special Projects Act of the Education Amendments of 1974 (PL 93-380). Also, an Office of Career Education was created in the U.S. Office of Education. A major development in career education policy took place in 1977 when the Career Education Implementation Incentive Act (PL 95-207) was passed by Congress. As implied by the name, this legislation is intended to induce local and state education agencies to implement career education programs by providing part of the required funds through 1983. The authorized funds were $50 million for 1979, $100 million for each of the years 1980, 1981, $50 million for 1982 and $25 million for 1983. Thus, once the states are committed to the programs they will also be expected to finance a larger portion of their programs. However, of the $50 million authorized for 1979 only $32.5 million was appropriated, of which $8.7 million was for postsecondary education (Education Commission of the States, 1979a). The career education program should be kept in perspective: the $32.5 million funding is tiny compared to the $600 million for Vocational Education and the more than $1 billion directed to youth through CETA.

Although a number of states had career education programs prior to 1971 and Federal funds were available from the Vocational Education Act of 1968, Federal legislation during the 1970's seems to have accelerated both state and local activity with regard to career education. The central focus of implementation is obviously the local level, where the programs are administered. By 1975 approximately 5000 Local Education Agencies initiated career education programs. Only a small fraction of these were funded by Federal money. The National Association of School Boards, The American Industrial Arts Association, The American Personnel and Guidance Association developed policies to be implemented at the local level. The effort extended beyond the education community. Organizations like the National Alliance of Business, The Chamber of Commerce of the U.S., and labor organizations advised local affiliates on ways of cooperation in developing programs. This involvement of non-educational organizations at the local level was later legitimized in the Career Education Implementation Incentive Act of 1977 when states were explicitly authorized to distribute funds to local education agencies for developing and implementing collaborative relationships with organizations representing handicapped persons, minority groups, women, older persons, low income persons and other members of the community and for using persons from these groups as resource persons in schools and for student field trips into the community.

At the state level, in 1975 only five states (Florida, Kansas, Louisiana, Maryland and Vermont) had a comprehensive career education law, though 21 State Boards of Education had policy statements on career education and 25 states implemented some form of career education with either state or Federal funds

(Rapp and Barber, 1976). By 1978 more than 20 states enacted career education legislation, and an additional three states - Alabama, Arkansas, and Ohio - have appropriations for career education with no legislation (Education Commission of the States, 1979b). State legislation varies quite a bit, and broadly speaking, state efforts can be classified into four categories:

1. Appropriation/resolution - Indicates support of the legislature for career education. Little guidance for implementation. The actual implementation is left to administering agency and is often optional. Four states can be classified in this category.

2. Supportive legislation - Creates structure and mechanism to support activities at local level. Four states belong to this category.

3. Implementation legislation - Provides for program implementation with varying degrees of discretion left to administration. Some structure and content provided by legislature and funds are provided to assure implementation. Thirteen states fall into this category.

4. Education reform legislation - In a number of states career education is viewed as an agent of education reform. Three states belong to this category.

It is important to understand the relationship of career education to vocational education. The U.S. Office of Education went to great lengths in its effort to distinguish between the two and to point out that career education is the integration of college preparatory and vocational education. Nevertheless, confusion was not avoided, and many saw career education as a new name for vocational education. Yet others interpreted it to mean a new program to be developed at the expense of vocational education. These views are not totally misguided, in view of the early development of career education. Since 1968 funds have been made available to states by the Vocational Education Act for the development of career education programs (though a variety of names was used). Also, as had been mentioned earlier, the first funds allocated by the U.S. Office of Education specifically for career education ($18 million) were discretionary funds made available by the Vocational Education Act. It was not until 1974 that funds were authorized independently to career education. These facts caused the State Directors of Vocational Education to criticize career education on the grounds that it was taking money away from vocational education. In many states, in fact, career education started out in the bureaus of vocational education. By 1975 there were six states - Arizona, Connecticut, Florida, Hawaii, Kentucky and Maine - whose contact persons for career education were part of vocational education offices (Rapp and Barber, 1976). The vocational education community was also among the first to develop its ideas about vocational education. The American Vocational Association had a task force report in 1972, and the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education argued for a National Policy on Career Education in 1974.

Two themes are apparent in the views of the vocational education community on career education. First, career education must be clearly distinguished from vocational education. Separate allocations of funds must be available, and career education should not come at the expense of vocational education. Second, in spite of the distinction between the two, vocational education must play an important role in career education. "American Vocational Association will support legislation that emphasizes career education as a part of existing and proposed education legislation and will promote the fact that vocational education is a component of and necessary to the fulfillment of career education" (American Vocational Association Policy Resolutions, 1976). The issue was finally taken up by Congress in 1977, where a House report made a distinction between the two.

> Many people confuse career education and vocational education, but a distinction must be made between the two. Vocational education is specific job skills training. Career education is a comprehensive instructional strategy beginning in the early elementary grades and extending into adult years, providing people with awareness of the world of work, with a broad orientation to various occupations that exist in society, with guidance and counseling to aid in career decision making, with assistance in methods of securing jobs, and with positive attitudes towards work.
> (Report No. 45-150, March 31)

While it is quite clear what is meant by vocational education, career education is described in broad and vague terms which give little clue to what it actually is. The ambiguity continued even after the U.S. Office of Education stated that "career education is the totality of experiences through which one learns about and prepares to engage in work as part of his or her way of living." By avoiding any mention of specific programs and by referring to the "totality of experiences," career education can be interpreted to mean just about anything. The variety of interpretation, more than anything else, reflects the ideological and political convictions of interest groups participating in the public debate.

In 1974 The Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. published a brochure on career education in collaboration with more than 20 organizations. Ever since, the Chamber has been active in promoting career education, and at present career education embodies most of the Chamber's effort in the area of education. For the Chamber of Commerce of the U.S., "career education is the total effort of education and the community to help all individuals become familiar with the values of a work-oriented society, to integrate such values into their personal value systems, and to implement those values in their lives in such a way that work becomes possible, meaningful, and satisfying to each individual." The emphasis, then, is on the orientation to work and facilitating the transition from school to work.

The National PTA, also a strong supporter of career education, interprets it in a much broader context. In view of violence, vandalism, increased absenteeism, rising numbers of teenage pregnancies, " . . . the introduction of career education programs might help to reduce some of these and career education will renew the interest and motivation of children."

The Education Commission of the States has gathered 44 statements on career education from organizations in business and industry, labor, education, special interest groups and government agencies. In general, business and industry tend to emphasize career education as a method of teaching (not a program) and to rank work experience as the highest priority. Community groups are much more likely to emphasize the broader outcome as contribution to better citizenship; whereas counseling and guidance is most important, according to education organizations such as the Council of Chief State School Officers, American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association.

Minority organizations and women's groups have been particularly active in the case of career education. Minorities were among the most skeptical when the concept was introduced. The National Urban League expressed the fear that career education may be used as a weapon of oppression against the community of non-whites. A National Policy Conference on Education for Blacks, held in 1972 and co-sponsored by the Urban League and the Congressional Black Caucus, expressed concern over the lack of minority involvement in the development of the career education concept. These activities resulted in a "National Conference, Career Education: Implications for Minorities," held in Washington D.C. in 1973, co-sponsored by the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, and the State Higher Education Officers. The conference was funded by the U.S. Office of Education.

Many of the concerns of minorities were apparently treated between 1973 and 1975, when both the National Urban League and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People were among the organizations to endorse the Chamber of Commerce's statement of career education.

The National Advisory Council on Women's Education Programs stated the concerns of women who feared sex stereotyping in career education. In testifying before the Senate Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities during the hearings on Career Education Implementation Incentive Act, 1977, this agency proposed that elimination of sex bias be a major purpose of the Act. Judging from the language of the law, the legislature was definitely attentive both to ethnic minority and female groups, in explicitly mentioning the need to eliminate any bias. It states:

> Career education for the purposes of this Act . . . means the totality of experiences which are designed to be free of bias and stereotyping (including bias or stereotyping on account of race, sex, age, economic status, or handicap), through which one learns about, and prepares to engage in, work as part of his or her way of living and through which he or she relates to other life roles and choices such as family life. (Public Law 95-207, December 13, 1977)

One of the strongest sources of opposition to career education are the proponents of basic education. "In almost every school, one has little difficulty finding teachers who could be described as either passive or as active resisters of career education" (Rapp and Barber, 1976). The Council for Basic Education opposes such ideas as reforming the entire education system through career education or reorienting the teaching methods and emphasis towards the world of work. The advocates of basic education fear that "career education will become an industry, administered by a new cult. It seems to be moving that way, and the cost both in teachers' and students' time and in dollars will be very high" (Council for Basic Education Bulletins, January 1977). The proponents of this view have not been very successful in convincing the public and the policy makers, at least at the national level (although it should be remembered that funding for career education has remained miniscule), but they might have an impact at the local level, where the concepts of career education must be implemented.

Less critical of career education, but far from supportive, is the labor community and specifically the AFL-CIO. This organization was conspicuously absent from the list of over twenty large organizations who in 1975 published a booklet on career education - what it is and why it is needed. As far as we can tell, the AFL-CIO did not testify in 1975 in hearings that took place in the House Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education. Nor did its representatives testify in 1977 before the Senate Subcommittee on Education, Arts and Humanities. This reflects, in part, the sense that organized labor has that it has been left out of the career education movement and excluded from important decision-making. The AFL-CIO has certain reservations about the content of career education as well. The organization believes that career education should have the broad objective of preparing a person to become a good citizen, and no specific emphasis should be put on preparation for work (prepare a student to become a consumer, not only producer). Also, there is concern that education attainment, at least for some students, will be reduced and thus a greater differentiation by education will exist. In this the AFL-CIO strongly supports the basic education advocates. Another area of concern for the unions relates to the work experience proposed to be part of career education. "We reject so-called 'career education' programs that are a disguise for efforts to negate child labor laws, health and safety standards, and minimum wage laws" (Policy Resolutions, 1977). Although some of these areas of disagreement are very basic, the labor organizations are favorable towards a concept of career education which implies making the world more real to the student and better preparing him for a range of roles in adult life - so long as students are not involved in actual work which might reduce jobs available to members of the labor force.

Up to this point we have discussed the debate which focuses on the meaning of career education and the creation of a policy to implement it. Once career education was accepted in principle, another level of debate became apparent, concerning the role of members of various interest groups in implementing the program. In other words, while there was overwhelming support for career education in testimonies during the hearings on Career Education Implementation Incentive Act of 1977, certain interest groups argued for (or against) specific provisions that would benefit (or hurt) their members.

In a statement submitted by the American Library Association, the organization asks that "because libraries are nowhere mentioned in S.1328 [the career education act] we believe that the definition in Section 12 of the bill should be amended to specifically include them . . . . if not specifically mentioned in legislation such as S.1328, libraries are likely to be overlooked entirely by state and local administrators responsible for implementing the program." It should be noted that the final version does not specifically include libraries, but it also eliminates the wording "education agencies and institutions" and uses the term "totality of experiences" to describe the sources of career education that would be recognized by the law for funding purposes. Specific interpretation is left, then, to the state.

Also, the language of the draft clearly required that the state officer or agency designated to administer the career education program should employ persons experienced with respect to problems of discrimination and stereotyping and at least one professional trained in guidance and counseling. It is not surprising that, in its statement to the committee, the American

Personnel and Guidance Association strongly supported these explicit provisions, saying that survey research has shown the need for professional counselors. The American Industrial Arts Association disagreed on these provisions. Back in 1975 in testimony on the Vocational Education Amendments before the Subcommittee on Education of the United States Senate, the AIAA observed that career education has similar and compatible goals to those of industrial arts, and it was suggested that industrial arts personnel have a major role in career education. In line with this the American Industrial Arts Association, during the 1977 hearings on career education, asked "that section 5, subsection (6) stop at the end of line 7, page 6, deleting the remainder of this section [where a provision for specific personnel as mentioned above is given]. We believe this Act should not identify disciplines for state administration. Disciplines in addition to Guidance and Counseling can contribute significantly to state planning for career education. State administration should be a state decision." The final wording of the law does, however, leave the original wording intact.

Manpower Policy Programs

The previous sections have elaborated on the preparation for work that is taking place within the education system as an integral program. We have pointed out that vocational education and career education are efforts to cope with the need to prepare youth for future activities as productive adults. This need has not only received much attention from educational interest groups, but has also been of interest to organizations outside education. Along with in-school policies, there is a whole set of other programs developed over a long period of time by state and local governments and by the U.S. Department of Labor, which attempt to address the issue of preparation for work and employment within a broader labor market perspective. Programs for youth, in this case, are part of a much broader policy which addresses the manpower needs of the American society. At present, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) is the primary instrument by which the administration is attempting to alleviate the problem of youth unemployment and preparation of youth for productive activity.

Federal initiatives in employment programs date back to the days of the New Deal. The Civilian Conservation Corps and especially the National Youth Administration were created to relieve the magnitude of joblessness through work relief programs. At the time, these programs were clearly intended to provide jobs and a source of income rather than to educate and train youth. When the economy was expanding and on the upswing again the programs became less useful, and by the 1950's efforts in the legislature (guided by Senator Hubert H. Humphrey) to re-establish such programs were unsuccessful.

During this period manpower legislation was concerned primarily about adult males, mostly heads of households. The Manpower Development and Training Act which was passed in 1962 included a strong training and preparation component but paid no particular attention to youth. In 1961 when the bill was being debated, the unemployment of married men was 4.5%, but by the time the program was funded, in 1963, this figure had dropped to 3.2%, thus raising questions about the importance of this program. Coinciding almost perfectly with this change, the first cohorts of youth born during the post-World War II "baby boom" reached the age of 16 and were entering the labor force. The youth unemployment rate rose above 15%. A year after the MDTA was first funded, in 1964, the Act was amended to increase the youth component. Shortly after that, the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) of 1964 created the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the Job Corps, introducing a focus on youth, which has been maintained up through the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977.

The manpower programs of the 1970's, including the youth programs, had their origins in the Employment and Manpower Act, which was intended to replace the MDTA of the early 60's. This bill was debated in both the House and the Senate during 1969-1971 and finally passed, but was vetoed by President Nixon. The three major features of the proposed legislation were that it would make possible the creation of public sector jobs to counter cyclical effects of the economy; it would transfer administration of the programs almost totally to the local governmental agencies; and the new legislation would consolidate many categorical programs in order to allow the local community to use the funds received according to its special needs. The orientation of this legislation, and the shift in policy it would have signalled, had primarily to do with public sector job creation.

The Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress estimated that over five million jobs can be filled in public service. The Urban Coalition, the AFL-CIO, and the U.S. Conference of Mayors - League of Cities strongly advocated public sector job creation (Davidson, 1972). But the provision in the proposed bill that would have allowed the creation of public jobs drew much criticism from conservative members of Congress. President Nixon, when vetoing the bill, argued that it represented "dead-end jobs in the public sector." The proposal to shift the administration of the programs to the local level was strongly supported by the U.S. Conference of Mayors - League of Cities who as early as 1969 united local governments in opposition to state role in manpower legislation. Local governments are supported in this instance by community action groups such as the Urban League, who argued that their members were not receiving adequate treatment from state agencies. They also demanded for themselves a more central role in the administration of the program. Prior to the developments in the late 1960's and the 1970's, "At the state and local level, projects were planned jointly by the state employment security agencies - which established occupational need, recruited trainees, and paid stipends - and the Vocational Education Agency - which conducted classes on certified local training sites. Their proposals were in turn submitted to the Department of Labor and Department of Health, Education and Welfare, which shared the responsibility for approval" (Levitan and Zickler, 1974). Under the proposed legislation, this would no longer have been so.

Thus vocational educators and employment service officials in particular had reason to be dissatisfied since the bill bypassed them, but the speed with which the bill went through Congress prevented their interest groups from mobilizing their forces (Davidson, 1972). Furthermore, the American Vocational Association and the Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies were persuaded by Malcolm Lovell, assistant secretary for manpower in the Department of Labor at the time, to refrain from active opposition to the bill.

Although this legislation failed, many of its components were incorporated in the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) which passed in 1973, and has been most recently amended in 1978. The present form of employment and training policy contains an emphasis on local government and community action groups in administration of the program. The education community, including vocational education, has only a marginal formal role and the role of the state in implementing the programs has been reduced considerably.

Most funds provided under CETA are allocated to prime sponsors which are usually localities representing over 100,000 people or combinations of local governments where at least one locality represents over 100,000 people. Those areas not included in this definition fall under state responsibility, in which case the state is considered a prime sponsor. According to this policy, approximately two-thirds of the population is served through city and county sponsors and one-third by state authority, and funds are allocated according to those proportions. The prime sponsors contract with various agencies and organizations (in many cases community action groups) which are the units that actually carry out the specifics of the policy. In 1977 $109 million of CETA funds were provided to community based organizations at the local level through prime sponsors for training and employment services. $7.4 million was made available to national offices of a number of organizations such as Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC's) and the National Urban League which ran their own projects.

In addition to new programs initiated under CETA, some of the previous programs are either incorporated in whole or modified by the new policy. The Job Corps, authorized as part of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, is now Title IV of CETA. The program is designed to help the most disadvantaged youth aged 16-21 who are out of school and are not working. Participants receive basic education, vocational training, counseling and work experience in 61 residential and non-residential centers. In 1978 $486 million was provided to accommodate 22,000 participants from all 50 states. The Neighborhood Youth Corps which was initiated in 1964 had separate in-school, out-of-school and summer programs. With the authorization of CETA this program ceased to exist and its components were incorporated in a number of different programs. Summer programs that were run by local communities for their disadvantaged youth now receive CETA support through the Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged. This program is for youth aged 14-21 and in 1978 $795 million was used to support 1.1 million individuals who worked an average of 26 hours a week for 9 weeks in a variety of community projects.

Though CETA encompasses most of the federal manpower and training effort it should be noted that other federal programs as well as state programs do exist which are oriented at least in part toward youth. Amendments in 1967 to the Social Security Act authorized a work and training program called the Work Incentive Program (WIN). It is administered jointly by the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare. In 1971 it was required that all applicants for or recipients of Aid to Families with Dependent Children register for WIN. In 1978 20,000 persons 16-22 participated in this program. Other special programs are run by the Veterans Administration, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Justice Department, and HEW's division of vocational rehabilitation. In addition, states run their own employment (and to some extent training) programs through state employment security agencies. As noted earlier these agencies had a central role in the Manpower Development and Training Act and at present they represent most of states' individual efforts to cope with unemployment and manpower needs. While these state programs are not part of CETA, there are attempts to coordinate CETA and state programs,and by 1977, 21 state employment security agencies (SESA) served as prime sponsors for CETA.

The total funding for CETA has recently reached $10 billion a year, of which $1 billion is allocated to four programs recently developed for youth. This is in addition to participation of youth in the more general CETA programs. In 1977 close to 2 million young adults participated in the summer program, the Job Corps and the regular CETA training and employment programs (title I and title III). Under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 four new programs were authorized. Three of the programs became part of title III of CETA legislation and one program was authorized under a new title VIII. The Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects was designed to help economically disadvantaged youth complete high school as a foundation for career. Participants aged 16-19 are guaranteed part-time jobs during the year and full-time employment during the summer. They must be in school or willing to return to school in order to be eligible to participate. Close to 30,000 individuals participated in the program in 1978.

The Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects are also intended for youth aged 16-19. Although there is some intent to motivate participants to return to school (by asking schools to grant credit for work experience), the major focus is on out-of-school unemployed youth who have problems obtaining a job and can benefit from well supervised training. Of these funds, 2% are allocated for Native American youth and another 2% for migrant and seasonal farm worker youth. Approximately 20,000 individuals participated in this program in 1978.

The Young Adult Conservation Corps is meant for persons 16-23 years old. It is administered by the Department of Agriculture and the Department of the Interior by agreement with the Department of Labor. Participants are unemployed, out-of-school, and participants may be hired for up to 12 months. The emphasis in these programs is on experience in occupational skills mostly surrounding conservation efforts. Close to 25,000 participants worked mostly in non-residential sites and earned at least Federal minimum wage in 1978.

The fourth and the largest of the new programs is the Youth Employment and Training Program. It is intended to provide employment, employability development and supportive services to youth 14-21 years old. Preference is given to economically disadvantaged youth, but prime sponsors can use up to 10% of their funds for programs that include youth of all economic backgrounds. 22% of the funds made available by this program must be used for in-school youth in projects carried out in cooperation with local education agencies. The jobs obtained through this program can be either full- or part-time, and

and attempt is made to find jobs relevant to the educational program for the in-school youth. In 1978 some 150,000 youth participated in the Youth Employment and Training Program at a cost of 500 million dollars.

It is apparent that these programs have differing emphasis in terms of the components of the experience, and at present there is little information concerning what component works best to ensure long-lasting employability. Much public debate at present revolves around several of these components. One issue is that of public sector versus private sector jobs. CETA began with a high component of public employment. Many of the participants were employed in local governments. Federal funds then were used in many cases to expand local bureaucracy and for political purposes. The National Alliance of Business and the Chamber of Commerce of the United States strongly opposed this policy and asked for a much larger proportion of funds to be diverted to the private sector. The argument was stated that public jobs are more likely to be dead-end jobs and will not be of help to the individual in the long run, whereas jobs in the private sector would be more beneficial to the individual and to society as well. As a consequence of this effort, the Private Sector Initiative Program was developed, allowing more funds to be directed to the private sector.

This is the most recent of the administration's initiatives aimed at motivating private business - where 80% of the new jobs are - to increase their participation in the CETA efforts. $500 million were authorized for this program for 1979. It is intended mostly for on-the-job training in the private sector. Prime sponsors are required to establish Private Industry Councils (PIC's) with at least half of the membership representing enterprises with 500 or fewer employees. The program attempts to deal with the problem of structural unemployment (rather than cyclical unemployment) through creating skills that meet the needs of business and industry. Employers who participate in the program will be subsidized for their training expenses and participating employees will receive at least the minimum wage. There are no clear restrictions on types of business that can participate but prime sponsors in submitting their plans must show the job opportunities in each of the occupations proposed for training. It is still too early to say what impact this new program, strongly supported by the private sector, actually has and whether it will constitute a shift in manpower policies of the federal government toward jobs and training in the private sector and the business community.

A second issue of concern is the training component of CETA. From its inception, the program was envisioned as a training program as well as an employment program. Yet education agencies were not given any specific role in the program, and most of the actual decisions on implementing programs were left to the prime sponsors, mostly local governments. During the first three or four years there was very little coordination between local authorities and the education community. Vocational educators voiced their concern about the development of a dual training system, because facilities for training were created for CETA purposes, bypassing vocational training facilities and personnel. The strongest criticism of CETA from the vocational education community is directed toward its ineffectiveness and inefficiency. Even though the American Vocational Association endorses the idea of CETA, its officials argue that ". . . the billions could have yielded greater results had they been used to strengthen and enlarge existing vocational training programs in high schools and technical institutions" (Voc Ed, 1979). In accordance with this argument, the American Vocational Association pointed out, in recent testimony before Congress, that increased funds for vocational programs do not have to come from an expanded budget. Rather, funds can be transferred from programs that maintain citizens (such as CETA public sector jobs) to programs that prepare citizens for productive life. They calculate that the cost of training potential workers through vocational education is $308 on the average, $33 of which is federal funds. The average cost per CETA participant, in contrast, was $8,429 in 1978 (Bottoms, 1979). A representative of Future Business Leaders of America (the vocational education club of students taking business courses) also argued in an interview that CETA programs are not able to motivate the participants and that dropout rates are very high. He claimed that vocational youth organizations are more effective in this respect and that vocational education facilities and personnel have more impact than those employed in CETA programs.

The American Vocational Association urged Congress to increase CETA funds devoted to vocational education from 5% to 25% and asked for CETA grants to each state for vocational education and services (American Vocational Journal, 1975). The Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. used information collected in a study of its own to argue the point of increased funding for training.[1] In a survey of 2400 personnel directors, it was found that generally speaking, off-the-job training had more satisfactory results than did on-the-job training. And the American Association of Junior and Community Colleges pointed out in a recent appropriations debate that only 5% of CETA participants move from public service jobs to unsubsidized jobs in the private sector, whereas 50% moved from training to unsubsidized jobs. In the conclusion of the appropriations session, $500 million was transferred from public service employment to training programs.

Thus from the time of CETA's introduction in 1973, there has been some attempt to give the prime sponsors less discretion in allocating funds, and decisions have been made at the national level as to how much to spend on training or public employment, generally moving funds away from public employment. This is true for allocation of funds to in-school youth as well. The expectation at the outset of the program was that coordination will take place at the local level to ensure participation of the education community and in-school youth, but this did not happen. As a consequence, Congress decided to allocate 22% of the funds available for youth programs specifically for in-school youth. Thus the availability of funds for youth attending high school will not depend on the local level but are fixed nationally. Similarly, the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 specifies the need for arrangements to be made at the state and local level with education officials " . . . So that academic credit would be given for the skills and knowledge acquired through work experience that would deserve credit if learned through traditional schooling or in other ways" (Department of Labor, 1977). The National School Boards Association demands an important role in general decisions about granting academic credit, but at present the regulations are not sufficiently clear as to enable one to determine what they mean for various interested parties.

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[1] This serves as a useful example of a study that was undertaken by an interest group with the specific intention of using the results for policy purposes, in this case for testimony before Congress.

The central issues with regard to the allocation of CETA funds relate, then, to the division among components such as public or private jobs, training and employment, and the role of the education community.

Minimum Wage for Youth

While the unemployment of adults (particularly white heads of family) has been low and slightly decreasing, the rate for youth has remained extremely high and for certain population groups such as young black males the figure is over 30%. In the previous sections we discussed certain policies which attempt to address the issue. The central underlying assumption of the policies directed at preparing and training youth is that low productivity of these individuals impairs their ability to compete in the labor market. By providing youth with appropriate skills, it is assumed, they will have a better chance to find and keep a job. Exposure to the work setting, relevant training and attitudes are considered necessary to facilitate the transition to the world of work. Up to this point in the argument for a policy for youth, there is total agreement among all parties to the debate. Beyond this point, there is disagreement. One side, comprised primarily of business and industry, concludes that more jobs must be provided, and this must be in the private sector. In order for that to happen, youth should be paid sub-minimum wage (congruent with their low productivity) so that employers will be motivated to expand production and increase the number of employees.

This issue is part of a broader debate concerning minimum wage, a debate that has been going on since the 1930's. At present, Federal minimum wage regulations are quite intricate but the central rationale is based on interstate commerce. The complexity stems from the fact that even jobs remotely related to interstate exchange such as preparation of materials for highway construction are covered. Close to 2/3 of all full- and part-time employees (more than 50 million workers) are covered by the Federal minimum wage. In general, covered employees are in construction, communication, hospitals, retail, laundering and clothing industries, in establishments whose annual gross volume of sales is $245,000 or more.

Those exempt from minimum wage provisions are usually individually owned small retail enterprises, seasonal recreation establishments and farm workers employed by anyone who used less than 500 man-days of farm labor. Although exemptions from minimum wage are provided only for marginal types of jobs, youth are much more likely to be in these jobs than are adults. Thus inclusion of more sectors of the labor force under minimum wage legislation is likely to affect youth proportionately more than it will adults. But the central issue to be discussed here is that of defining a special minimum wage by age groups rather than by occupation or industry groupings.

The Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. has constantly advocated a sub-minimum wage for youth in connection with policies such as career education or CETA. During the hearings on the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977, the Chamber of Commerce's representative recommended " . . . that consideration be given to paying less than the minimum wage for employment and training resulting from H.R. 6138. Such a youth opportunity wage would maximize the number of jobs created by this legislation" (Chamber of Commerce to the House Subcommittee on Employment Opportunities, May 11, 1977).

While the Chamber of Commerce and other advocates of sub-minimum wage refer to it as an "opportunity wage," the opponents led by labor argue that the experience which is supposed to facilitate transition to work should not cause the youth to be exploited nor should it create unfair competition for older employees already in the work force. In the case of career education, for instance, the AFL-CIO is concerned that programs might disguise efforts to negate minimum wage laws by having youth receive work experience at low wages.

The debate around the employment of youth went on for years before it was treated comprehensively for the first time in the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. It asserts, in one of its sections, that youth should not be paid different wages than adult workers. Excluded were certain classes of youth narrowly defined which include apprentices, students, learners and handicapped learners. The Labor Secretary has the authority to allow below minimum wage payment to these groups, though the bill states that he should not use his discretion to enact these wages in cases where there is high probability that the full-time employment opportunities of non-student workers will be threatened.

In the early 70's the Nixon administration proposed a general youth subminimum wage. This was strongly opposed by labor and it was stated that "A lower minimum wage for teenagers would have four distinct disadvantages: displacement of working heads of families; blatant discrimination against young workers; loss of dignity in work they perform; and an unfair increase in profits for those unscrupulous employers who would discriminate against teenagers by paying them lower wages than adults for the same work" (House Hearings on H. R. 7130 to amend the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, 1971). In response the unions were accused of using the minimum wage as a way of pricing black youth out of the market.

Recently the issue came up again in the form of proposed amendments of section 14 of the Fair Labor Standards Act. These proposals would have permitted a minimum wage for youth at 85% of the Federal minimum wage. This would apply to youth 19 years old or younger for the first six months of employment with any employer. While the proponents spoke at length of the advantages this program held for black youth who experience extremely high rates of unemployment, the proposals were strongly opposed by the National Urban League, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and the Congressional Black Caucus. The bill did not pass, but the Chamber of Commerce of the U.S. and the National Restaurant Association argued in testimony on a new version of this legislation, that as wages rise immature and untrained employees will face a difficult task in searching for jobs. The American Farm Bureau was even more extreme in calling for " . . . allowable wage minimums for students to 50% of the general minimum required in the Act." The 85% limit suggested by the previous groups was considered too high and it "would drive

141

from the labor market the least educated, least literate, and least skilled of workers, and force more of them into the indignity of a life on the public dole" (Datt, 1977).

During this debate one side uses arguments concerning the number of jobs and experience opportunities for youth, and is accused by the other of wanting a subminimum to increase its profits.[1] The other side uses arguments concerning discrimination against and exploitation of youth, and is accused by the first of wanting to exclude youth from fair competition to protect its own jobs.

Although it is not always brought up in public debate, the higher education sector is very much involved in the minimum wage policy. According to Department of Labor statistics, over 1300 higher education institutions paid subminimum wages to almost half a million students in fiscal year 1976. It is difficult to find any clear statement by members of the higher education community on this issue, though it has been pointed out by a representative of the National Association of Student Financial Aid Administration (NASFAA) that difficulties arise when applying minimum wage regulations to student employees.

For one, private institutions must follow Department of Labor regulations, whereas public institutions that employ students are subject to regulations set forward by the Commissioner of Education. In 1979, for instance, the minimum was raised to $2.90 in the month of January for private institutions but only in July for public institutions. Also, both types of institutions can obtain permission to pay less than minimum wage, and many students working on campus are paid less, as pointed out earlier. Student organizations are very much opposed to the regulations which permit students to be paid less than minimum and thus against any enactment of sub-minimum wage legislation. The United States Student Association (USSA) which includes students in both private and public universities, and COPUS - the coalition of independent college and university students - are most active in this area. Together with student organizations, minority groups led by the NAACP and the AFL-CIO have created the Coalition for a Fair Minimum Wage in order to ensure that minimum wage legislation is maintained.

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[1] The AFL-CIO argues that " . . . this scheme [amendments to the FLSA] has nothing to do with teenage employment. It is simply a device to give fast food operators and other employers a large labor source to exploit" (AFL-CIO News, Sept. 3, 1977).

An interesting aspect of this policy issue is the fact that there has been extensive academic study of the problem. Scholarly works on the effects of minimum wage, particularly on unemployment (or some other similar outcome), are cited by both proponents and opponents of sub-minimum wage. Thomas Sowell (1978), Walter E. Williams ("Youth and Minority Unemployment," 95th Congress, 1st Session), Sar Levitan (1977 hearings), and a number of others have testified in Congress concerning minimum wage. Yet the abundance of information has not made the task of collective decision-making any easier. Since there is no overwhelming evidence that points in either direction, interest groups present those findings which support their position.

The issue of minimum wage as it relates to youth is not limited to the Federal arena. Similar problems arise at the state level and in some cases additional complications are introduced. The minimum wage in effect for employees not covered by Federal legislation varies widely from state to state. In most cases, it covers small firms employing few employees that tend to be less skilled. A relatively large proportion of youth fall into this category. In Illinois, for example, not only is the state minimum wage lower than Federal minimum (which is not true for all states),but there also exists a minimum wage for youth in those jobs where state minimum applies. A bill was introduced in 1972 which would, in effect, have the Federal minimum wage prevail as the state minimum. This was clearly an issue which divided business and labor.

The state AFL-CIO strongly supported the bill, while the Illinois State Chamber of Commerce, joined by the Illinois Manufacturing Association, the Illinois Retail Merchants, and the Illinois Hotel and Motel Association, opposed the bill. The major argument of those opposing the bill was a concern with the consequences of such legislation on the employment of youth. In this they were able to receive a certain amount of support from vocational training community and community colleges, who are concerned about cooperative education and training. These programs combine in-class education with related work experience on an alternating basis. The cooperation of industry and business is essential in this case since they provide the work setting in which the student experiences the actual work environment. It is feared that raising the minimum wage for youth would cause many employers to discontinue the programs on the grounds that they cannot afford to pay so much to untrained youth who have low productivity. This argument, it appears, is accepted by the vocational education representatives, and thus their support during the legislative debate. The issue, then, is of concern to both a portion of the education community as well as a variety of interest groups concerned about the employment of youth.

National Service and Military Recruitment

The issue of National Service, dormant since the initiation of the All Volunteer Force, has in recent months been revived. In early 1978 the Congressional Budget Office prepared a report at the request of Senator Sam Nunn, Chairman of the Manpower and Personnel Subcommittee of the Senate Armed Services Committee (Jan. 1978). The costs of a variety of programs were estimated and their possible effects on the military as well as on youth were discussed at length. Exactly one year later the Committee for the Study of National Service - a volunteer committee comprised of private citizens, mostly academics - presented a report on National Service and the Needs of the Nation, including specific recommendations for implementing a National Service System. By mid-1979 seven bills were presented to Congress, their content ranging from proposals to reinstate selective service registration to plans that would subject all young adults to some form of national service, with options among different forms.

The rationale for a National Service derives from a number of different bases. First, National Service is seen as a means by which youth may fulfill an obligation to society as part of the concept of citizenship. Second, National Service is proposed as a method for maintaining military strength. It avoids the inequities of the draft and would help cope, it is suggested, with the difficulties of the All Volunteer Force. National Service would implement the concept of "citizen soldier" proposed by Morris Janowitz by tightening the ties between the military and the civilian sectors of the population through regular ongoing turnover. Third, National Service is also introduced as a policy directed at the most pressing problems of today's youth - namely, unemployment and the transition from school to adult life. Different National Service proposals emphasize particular ones of these three orientations.

During the mid-1960's National Service was proposed as a method of military recruitment more equitable than the draft. But when the draft was abolished and the All Volunteer Force came into effect in the early 70's, there first seemed to be no need for a National Service, since recruitment to the military was designed to operate according to the law of supply and demand. However, within a few years after the change, primary concern was directed towards the composition of the military, which was becoming increasingly black - in part because of the extremely high unemployment rates for blacks 16-19. The concern was voiced that the military will be comprised of a high proportion of disadvantaged youth. This has meant also that illiteracy has become a problem -

in spite of the fact that approximately 80% of the soldiers are high school graduates. The proportion in the second lowest mental category that the military draws from has practically doubled, from the time the AVF was introduced to the present. Blame has been put in part on the education system and its faulty preparation of youth.

More recently, concern has shifted from composition of the military to combat readiness of the All Volunteer Force, and its ability to meet its recruitment goals. Recruitment drives fell (on the average) 10% short of meeting their goals in the last quarter of 1978. More disturbing to some policy-makers is the fact that the Army's Individual Ready Reserve stands at less than a third of its required size. Furthermore, the decline in the size of cohorts which will be of military age during the next ten years means that the military will have to recruit a larger proportion of the cohort than it is presently doing. Thus, officials are concerned about the effectiveness of recruitment procedures. Also, little is known about the decision-making process of individuals - why and when they decide to join or not to join the military.

As pointed out earlier, certain proposals of National Service particularly emphasize the benefits to the military from a National Service System. Representatives Paul H. McCloskey and John J. Cavanaugh, in different bills, criticized the All Volunteer Force for being too expensive and not meeting the defense needs of the country. National Service was proposed as a substitute. Although the proposals differ, the basic idea is that every individual upon graduating from high school must decide between military service or civilian service, with an option of choosing neither and being subject to a draft during a specified time period. National Service would then be compulsory and all young adults (with some exceptions not yet specified) would have to serve their country.

It is assumed that these measures would ensure adequate recruitment to the military, since tours of duty would be two years rather than three as they stand today. Also, the educational benefits attached to military service (usually two years of guaranteed education for every year of military service) would induce individuals to join even if direct financial benefits will be smaller than those existing in the AVF. Yet some bills (like that of Representative McCloskey) have provisions for reinstating some form of the draft when manpower needs of the military are not met.

Many local groups, primarily on university campuses, have been formed to voice concern about the possibility of a new draft. The Students for a Libertarian Society, a San Francisco-based organization, now has active affiliated groups on many university campuses and these groups strongly oppose all forms of National Service. The Libertarian Party, a national organization with state and local affiliates, is considering taking up the National Service as a major issue in its members' political campaigns at all levels of government. They are against any requirement for young adults to serve their country even in civilian capacity and are strongly opposed to provisions for a limited draft included in some of the recent bills. The organization sees in the issue an opportunity to appeal to young voters, and the Young Libertarian Alliance (associated with the Libertarian Party) specifically directs its activities towards high school and college youth. Members of both the Students for a Libertarian Society and the Libertarian Party have testified before the House Armed Services Subcommittee in opposition to reinstating the draft. These organizations have also initiated alliances with the American Civil Liberties Union, and Conscientious Objector groups, and are part of the Coalition Against Registration and the Draft which held anti-draft demonstrations in May.

Contrary to the total rejection of National Service displayed by many of the interest groups participating in public debate, the Committee for the Study of National Service endorses the concept though much less emphasis is put on the military. The Committee states that " . . . the nation's social, economic, educational, environmental, and military needs, including the need of young people to serve and be productive, and the need of our society to regain a sense of service, together make a compelling case for moving toward universal service for American youth" (1979). Not only are military needs of low priority in this proposal, but it is also proposed that the whole system be voluntary with no way to ensure a minimum number of participants. In testimony before the House Armed Services Committee (March, 1979), Donald J. Eberly, Executive Director of the National Service Secretariat and member of the Committee for the Study of National Service, pointed out that according to the Committee's proposal, the National Youth Service Corps would have no effect on the number of persons in military service, but would sharply reduce youth unemployment rate. A representative of the AFL-CIO also voiced concern over the prospect of a compulsory National Service. With a growing constituency of middle class people, the AFL-CIO is likely to reject any proposal for a non-voluntary service. They see National Service as a means of assisting under-privileged youth much like the Young Adult Conservation Corps.

Public debate is only beginning now and it is likely to become more vocal as more interest groups will be drawn into it. Something is known with regard to attitudes of the youth toward National Service. The Gallup polls have been asking people about their attitude towards National Service for many years. During the decade of 1966 to 1976 opposition has slowly grown from 21% (who oppose one year of military or non-military service for young men) to 33%. This proportion was higher (43%) for young adults 18-29.[1] Yet no information exists for those most likely to be affected by National Service - youth in high school. Furthermore, the new proposals of National Service have a number of options from which an individual may choose, but there is little idea of the way youth would distribute themselves among these options.

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[1] We would like to thank David Knoke for bringing these figures to our attention.

CHAPTER FOUR

HIGHER EDUCATION POLICY

More than 3000 institutions of higher education in the United States serve 11.35 million students. Among these colleges and universities there is great diversity. This diversity can be seen in educational program, size, cost, admissions standards, type of students served, and source of support.

Reflecting this diversity of institutions are associations of colleges and universities which are based on the various characteristics of the institutions and thus overlapping. Member institutions are not neatly distributed among mutually exclusive associations; rather, the associations bring together institutions sharing a common trait. Thus, the pool of eligible members is sliced several ways and one institution may be represented by a number of associations.

There are six major associations representing higher education institutions. The National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC), founded in 1871, is the oldest higher education association and represents 142 public land-grant universities. It serves 30 percent of all students and includes the 30 largest institutions. The American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) is composed of the 332 state colleges and universities and claims 25 percent of all students. While NASULGC began as an association of the institutions created by the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862, the members of AASCU include the institutions previously known first as normal schools and then as teachers colleges. The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC) represents 1507 two-year institutions, both public and independent, and brings together state-level associations. The National Association of Independent Colleges and Universities (NAICU) speaks for the independent sector of higher education. Its membership includes

800 independent institutions. Through the NAICU Secretariat various regional and special purpose associations are brought together. Although the first colleges and universities in the United States were private, NAICU is the newest higher education association. Its formation as a body to represent interests of private sector colleges in Washington reflects the increased role of the Federal government in higher education and the financial difficulties of independent colleges and universities. The Association of American Universities (AAU) represents 50 major research-oriented universities, public and private. The National Association for Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO) represents the 105 black colleges, both public and independent.

Each association represents a single characteristic of its membership so that one institution might be a member of more than one association. For example, a major independent research-oriented university might belong to both NAICU and AAU, NAICU because it is independent and AAU because it is research-oriented. A private two-year college might belong to both AACJC and NAICU.

Overarching this collection of associations is the American Council on Education (ACE), an umbrella organization for the higher education community which brings together the various national and regional associations and also the institutions themselves. At another level, higher education is joined with elementary and secondary education through the Committee for the Full Funding of Education.

Apart from these associations of higher education institutions, there are also associations which represent the individuals who serve particular functions in their institutions such as the National Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators (NASFAA), the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, and American Association of University

Professors, and the Association of Community College Trustees (ACCT). In addition, there are groups which represent various users of higher education such as the American Association of University Women,and the Hispanic Higher Education Coalition which represents eleven Hispanic groups.[1] The student associations also fit this category. The United States Student Association (USSA) represents 3 million students at 30 member campuses of both public and independen institutions. The Coalition of Independent College and University Students (COPUS) speaks for students in the independent sector.

State Policy in Higher Education

The first colleges and universities in the United States were private and aimed at training elites. Since that time, higher education has changed radically,with an expansion in the types of institutions, and in the destinations of their students. The Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862, which gave public land to each state for the purpose of supporting colleges with the object of teaching agriculture and mechanic arts, marked the first major involvement of the Federal government in the field of higher education. Instead of giving money directly to individual colleges and universities, the money was divided among the states according to a population-based formula (Finn, 1978: 5). Although the Federal government required annual progress reports, the states were responsible for the administration of the schools, including the administrative costs. States have continued to play the major role in higher education.

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[1] These eleven groups are ASPIRA of America, El Congreso Nacionale de Asuntos Colegiales, League of United Latin American Citizens, Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Mexican American Women's National Association, National Association for Equal Educational Opportunities, Nationale Council de LaRaza, National IMAGE, Inc., Puerto Rican Legal Defense and Education Fund, Inc., Secretariat for Hispanic Affairs, U.S. Catholic Conference, and the Spanish American League Against Discrimination.

> The Federal service academies, beginning with the establishment of West Point in 1820, for all practical purposes, represent the extent of the Federal government's direct management of institutions of higher education. Instead, the Federal role in higher education has always been one of supplementing the states. "Of all the services that are supported by state funds," one scholar has written, "the state governments have most directly taken command of higher education." (Gladieux and Wolanin, 1976:3)

The states' role in higher education has evolved along with the changed balance between the public and independent sectors. While thirty years ago half of all students attended independent institutions, 80 percent of all students now attend public institutions. With this change in balance, the states have come to play a more active role in the area of higher education. This is exemplified in part by the recent establishment of numerous campuses, ordinarily as branches of the land grant universities, and the formation of state boards of higher education.

While state support for colleges and universities covers a wide range, including property and sales tax exemption for private colleges and state income tax deductions for contributions to them, the two principal forms of aid to higher education are institutional support, and student aid. Both forms may benefit either the public or independent sector; however, institutional support goes primarily to public institutions. Direct institutional support to the private sector supplies only three percent of the independent sector's expenses and accounts for less than three percent of the states' higher education budgets. In contrast, state appropriations provide 70 percent of the total educational revenue of the public sector. This amounted to $11.9 billion in 1975-76, and ranged from $2.2 billion in California to $27 million in New Hampshire (NCES, 1976).

Due to the declining enrollments in higher education, inflation, and the worsened job outlook for college graduates, accountability of higher education to the general public and to state legislators has been discussed along with accountability of secondary education. Several states have conducted state program reviews. For example, New York and Louisiana have carried on state reviews of graduate programs which resulted in the termination of some programs and decisions to strengthen some other programs (ECS, 1979c).

Because of the large subsidies going to state colleges and universities, the independent sector suffers from the existence of a "tuition gap" between the public and independent sectors. With the growth in the number of state associations of independent institutions, the independent sector has become more active in seeking policies to redress the situation. Tuition Equalization Programs, already in existence in various forms in seven states, have been discussed in others. For example, this year the Federation of Independent Illinois Colleges and Universities (FIICU), representing 54 colleges and universities, introduced the idea to the Illinois Board of Higher Education. According to the suggested plan, awards equal to 30 percent of the subsidy per student to public institutions in Illinois would have been awarded to students attending independent institutions in Illinois. This issue was of highest priority for FIICU this year.

State student financial aid amounted to $829 million during 1978-79 and helped 1,242,000 students (National Association of State Scholarship and Grant Programs, 1979: 1). Although institutional aid is heavily weighted in favor of the public sector, state student aid is more helpful to the independent sector. While only 13 states offer direct aid to private institutions,[1] 47 states conduct student aid programs, only 4 of which are restricted to students at public institutions (Berdahl in Breneman and Finn, 1978: 324). A survey conducted by the Illinois State Scholarship Commission illustrates the importance of student assistance to the independent sector. The Commission estimated that without state student aid, private institutions in Illinois would lose nearly 18 percent of their enrollment. More than 53 percent of all students receiving state aid in Illinois said that without such assistance they would not have been able to enroll full-time (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1977).

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[1] In 1975-76, ten states appropriated $115 million in general-purpose aid to private colleges and universities (Nelson in Breneman & Finn, 1978: 89).

The issue of aid to students or support of institutions is an important one at the state level, dividing the public and independent institutions. As the discussion in Chapter Five will indicate, the variations in policies among the states facilitates the study of consequences of these policy variations. State policy variations constitute to some degree natural experiments of which policy research can take advantage.

Federal Involvement in Support of Higher Education: An Overview

While the Federal government has not had direct responsibility for individual institutions, its role has also been significant, most recently in terms of providing student financial aid. The Servicemen's Adjustment Act of 1944 (the GI Bill) constituted a first major step for the Federal government in providing student aid. Veterans were made eligible for aid in return for services they had given the nation. Even today, the veterans educational benefits program remains the largest Federal student aid program. The National Defense Act of 1958, which provided for graduate fellowships and loans for undergraduates in disciplines with manpower shortages, was a response to Sputnik and the need to produce trained manpower for national security.

Until the 1960's, the Federal government's student aid was distributed on the basis of merit. Student aid based on financial need came into being as part of the War on Poverty. Because education was viewed as a key to upward mobility, need-based financial aid was seen as a means for equalizing opportunity and various programs such as Educational Opportunity Grants and College Work-Study were instituted. This thrust was continued with the establishment of the Basic Educational Opportunity Grant Program (BEOGP) in 1972, a program of grants distributed on the basis of need, which is an outgrowth of the Educational Opportunity Grant Program.

The Middle Income Student Assistance Act (MISAA), passed in 1978, provides for financial aid programs originally intended for students from lower-income families to be extended to students from middle-income families. MISAA was passed in order to avert attempts to establish tuition tax credits at the elementary, secondary, and higher education levels. Student financial aid remains a major aspect of the Federal government's involvement in higher education with ninety percent of the Federal government's expenditures on higher education in the form of student aid.

Federal Student Financial Aid Program

The composition of student financial aid programs is of importance to higher education institutions because a given program helps certain types of institutions to gain students and income at the expense of others. Due to the magnitude of the student aid programs, $7.3 billion in 1978, guidelines by which different forms of aid are distributed are of utmost concern to the various sectors of higher education. There are three types of financial aid provided by Title IV of the Higher Education Act (HEA). These include grants, the College Work-Study Program, and the student loan programs.

Basic Educational Opportunity Grant Program: The BEOGP, created by the HEA of 1972, is the cornerstone of the package of student financial aid programs. Students receive a basic grant of various amounts ranging from a minimum of

$200 to a maximum of $1800, not to exceed half of their total costs. Using a family contribution schedule, the amount of grant to be awarded a student is calculated so that family contribution plus the BEOG will equal $1800. MISAA raised the maximum income eligibility to $25,000. A combination of some amount of expected family contribution and possibly a BEOG are to serve as the basis for other forms of student aid. In FY 1979 the funding level for the BEOGP was $1,936 million. During 1976-77, 1,127,000 students were basic grant recipients (Atelsek and Gomberg, 1977: 16).

Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grant Program (SEOGP): Since College costs average $3000 at public institutions and $5100 at independent institutions, the BEOGP can cover only a fraction of these costs. SEOG's constitute a supplement to this, with grants of up to $1500, allocated by colleges and universities to their students on the basis of financial need. SEOG funds are first distributed among the states on the basis of each state's percentage of the national full-time equivalent of persons in institutions of higher education and are then divided among the colleges and universities within each state on the basis of applications submitted by the colleges and universities. Although SEOG awards are entirely Federal money, institutions must provide each recipient additional financial aid equal to the SEOG award. In FY 1979 the funding level for the SEOGP was $340 million. In 1976-77, SEOG provided 432,000 awards averaging $550 each from government funds, or $1100 to the student (Atelsek and Gomberg, 1977: 16-17).

State Student Incentive Grant Program (SSIGP): The SSIGP builds on the tradition of Federal-state partnership in higher education that dates from the Morrill Land-Grant College Act of 1862. The program is designed to provide an incentive to the states to provide financial aid. Under the program the Federal government matches a state's scholarship or grant program up to a maximum amount. In FY 1979 the Federal funding for the program was $77 million. Before the SSIGP was established in the HEA of 1972, only 28 states had grant programs. Now all 50 states have some type of grant program (Finn, 1978: 87). According to the National Association of State Scholarship Programs, in 1977-78, 50 percent of the funds for student grants in 16 states was Federal matching money. In 26 states, the Federal dollars made up more than a quarter of the states' programs (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1977).

Social Security Educational Benefits: Eligibility for Social Security educational benefits is unrelated to financial need but rather is based on Social Security contributions and parental status. Since 1965, full-time students aged 18 to 21 whose parents are deceased, disabled, or retired have been eligible for Social Security educational benefits. There are currently 720,000 recipients, with an annual average of $1,716. Although these funds are distributed by the Social Security Administration rather than the Office of Education, Social Security benefits are a major source of aid to students, with a budget of $1.505 billion in FY 1979.

Veteran Education Benefits: With a $2 billion budget for fiscal year 1979, veterans education benefits remain the largest of all Federal student financial assistance schemes. In 1976-77, payments were made at the rate of $292 a month to veterans who are full-time students with no dependents. As of January, 1977, only those veterans who choose to contribute $50.75 each month while they are in the service are eligible for benefits. Then contributions are matched two-for-one once they are discharged and become full-time students. Children, wives, and widows of deceased veterans who are full-time students are also eligible for monthly benefits. For a child of a deceased veteran, for example, monthly benefit is $61 per month.

College Work-Study Program (CWS): Under the College Work-Study Program, which began in 1964 as part of the War on Poverty and was subsequently moved to Title

IV of the HEA, the Federal government pays 80 percent of a student's wages on a campus job while the institution pays the other 20 percent. Appropriations for FY 1979 were $550 million. In 1976-77, 698,000 students were provided jobs (Atelsek and Gomberg, 1977: 18).

Student Loans: There are two major loan programs, the Guaranteed Student Loan Program (GSLP) and the National Direct Student Loan Program (NDSLP). The GSLP was initiated by the Higher Education Act of 1965. Private lenders issue student loans up to $2500 per year which are guaranteed by the Federal government. For FY 1979, $970 million was budgeted for the GSLP. In 1976-77, 695,000 students were guaranteed loan recipients (Atelsek and Gomberg, 1977: 15). These private lenders are usually financial institutions although some states and some colleges also serve as lenders. The interest rate on these loans is fixed at 7 percent, with the interest paid by the Federal government while the student is in school and nine months beyond. Although Federal interest benefits were formerly available only to students from families with incomes below $25,000, MISAA removed the income requirement entirely. Along with interest subsidies, the Federal government pays a special allowance to the lenders. This amount is determined quarterly by a formula tied to the interest rate on treasury bills up to a maximum of 5 percent above the 7 percent interest, or a total of 12 percent. The special allowance is needed in order to encourage financial institutions to make a student loan, since interest rates for lending may be greater than 7 percent, and because these loans are often held in a bank's portfolio for as long as ten years or more. The average length of time for mortgages, which require no more administrative costs and are for much greater amounts, is less than seven years.

Since student loans remain in a bank's portfolio for such long periods of time, in 1972 the Student Loan Marketing Association (Sallie Mae) was created as a secondary market for guaranteed student loans. Sallie Mae is a government-sponsored for-profit corporation which buys student loan paper from lending institutions so that they have the funds to grant more student loans.

While GSL's are independent of family income, NDSL's are administered to students who demonstrate financial need. The NDSLP is an institution-based program, meaning that the student deals with his college or university rather than with a financial institution. The Federal share of the capital for NDSL's is 90 percent with the institution providing the remainder. The cumulative loan limit through a bachelor's degree is $5000 and the interest rate is fixed at 3 percent. During 1976-77, 757,000 students received NDSL's and $329 million was budgeted for the program in FY 1979.

Nursing Scholarships and Nursing Loans: The Nursing Scholarship and Nursing Loans are campus-based programs. Funds for these programs are distributed among the nursing schools on a formula basis and then students apply to their schools for the scholarships and loans. The funding level for Nursing Loans is $13.5 million and for Nursing Scholarships, $9 million in FY 1979. These programs were initiated in the mid-1960's in order to remedy a shortage of nurses. There is now disagreement about whether a shortage of nurses remains. The Carter Administration, claiming that there is no longer a shortage, attempted to cut the funds for both of these programs in FY 1980. Through the efforts of health and educational groups, notably the American Nursing Association, the funds have been reinstated.

A Question of Priorities

The higher education community as a whole works to maintain the entire collection of student financial aid programs. There are differences, nonetheless, in the priorities of the various sectors. Since the independent institutions operate without the direct budgetary appropriations received by state colleges and universities, student aid is crucial to the maintenance of quality and in many cases to the very survival of these institutions. Their emphasis tends to be broad-ranged, concentrating on the entire package of financial aid so that they are able to put together a package of financial aid of different types for an individual student in order to meet the often high cost of a private education.

Representatives of the public sector are concerned that student aid programs give the generally higher-cost independent institutions an unfair advantage. It is argued that more students could be served in lower-tuition public institutions for the cost of educating fewer students in independent institutions. Representatives stress the need for the provision of access to higher education by a large number of students through low tuition rather than enhancement of choice for a smaller number of individuals.

Perhaps the deepest split between the public and independent sectors regarding student aid is the half-cost provision. Under the half-cost provision of the BEOGP, the maximum amount a student is allowed under the program is limited to half of his total costs. For example, a student with zero family contribution would be entitled to $1800 if he attended a college where his total costs exceeed $3600 while he would only be entitled to $1500 if the total costs were only $3000. Thus, a student's basic grant is affected by the cost of the school he selects. The half-cost provision originated in the HEA of 1972. It was discussed during debate concerning the Higher Education Amendments of 1976. Half-cost remains controversial and will be considered during the upcoming Reauthorization of the HEA.

Opposite positions on whether the half-cost provision should be maintained are taken by the independent and public sectors. NAICU and COPUS support the maintenance of the half-cost provision. It is argued that in order to assure student choice, the half-cost provision is necessary to preserve the independent sector alongside the already subsidized public institutions. It is claimed that removing the half-cost provision would make the cheaper public institutions even more attractive in terms of cost in comparison to the usually more expensive independent institutions.

> Assume, for example, a prospective college student attempting to choose between the average four-year public and private colleges whose attendance costs are . . . about $2,900 a year in the former and $4,800 in the latter. The price differential for an unaided student is $1,900, and the ratio between the two costs of attendance is 1:1.66. Now assume that $1,000 in student aid is made available to the student, regardless of his choice of institution. The "net" prices fall to $1,900 and $3,800. A rational economic being would see that the actual gap is still $1,900; but a prospective student worried about the high price of college might notice instead that now the private institution costs him twice as much to attend as does the public. Moreover, the aid has covered 34 percent of the gross attendance costs of the public campus, compared with just 21 percent at the private institution. (Finn, 1978: 75)

Spokesmen for the independent sector see the half-cost provision as a reasonable attempt at balancing the tuition gap created by subsidization of public institutions. Due to the high tuition at many independent colleges and universities, as well as general inflation, NAICU recommends gradually raising the maximum level from $1800 to $2400 over the six-year period from 1981-1982 through 1986-1987 as part of their general aim that every student receive 75 percent of total expenses through a combination of grants and a reasonable parental contribution (NAICU, Public Policy Statement for 1979).

On the other hand, the three institutional associations representing the public sector, AASCU, NASULGC, and AACJC, as well as USSA, are all in favor of throwing out the half-cost provision. It is seen as discriminatory against the lowest-income students at the lowest-cost institutions, because the low costs of these schools means that the amount for which a student may qualify on the basis of income is reduced due to the half-cost provision. It is argued that making it harder for a poor student to attend a public institution does not lead him to choose a more expensive private institution and that most of these students would choose public colleges anyway. It is pointed out that half of all community college students are in one- or two-year occupational and vocational courses and would be unlikely to attend a private college, since most do not offer such courses. There are also many students at public four year colleges enrolled in specialized courses which are not available at most private colleges. Thus, the position of those representing the public sector is that, not only does the half-cost provision adversely affect the access of many students to any kind of higher education, but it does not necessarily encourage those students affected by half-cost to attend institutions in the independent sector.

Public sector spokesmen argue that increasing the maximum award without removing the half-cost provision would do little to help the 80 percent of all students who are at the lower-priced public institutions. The 20 percent who are enrolled at independent institutions would receive proportionally more aid than the 80 percent at public institutions.

These different positions apply to the other student aid programs also. In order to realize NAICU's goal that grants provide 75 percent of student expenses it would be crucial that the maximum amounts for SEOG's and SSIG's be raised and that funding for both of them be increased. The SEOG Program is of particular concern to the independent sector represented by NAICU and COPUS because of the high student costs involved in attendance at many independent institutions and because this program has been underfunded in recent years. It is, along with the NDSLP and College Work-Study Program, a campus-based program, with funds allocated by a student financial aid officer. These campus-based programs are especially important to independent institutions because of the frequent need to put together a package of student aid to meet the high student expenses. NAICU recommends either increasing or removing the current $1500 limitation on maximum individual SSIG and SEOG awards. From the point of view of the independent sector, SSIG is an admirable program which encourages the state to help residents who need educational assistance beyond that provided by subsidized tuition.

Representatives of the public sector, on the other hand, do not advocate raising the levels of the individual grants, but support making it possible for part-time students to benefit from these programs. This reflects the heavier concentration of non-traditional students at public institutions, especially community colleges.

The above programs are all grants, which are not repaid. The second type of aid, self-help, exists in two forms, student loans and the College Work-Study Program. CWS has not been problematic because its self-help nature makes it very popular politically. (The issue of subminimum wages sometimes being paid to students on CWS was discussed in Chapter Three.)

On the other hand, student loans are controversial. Because of various problems with the two major programs, NDSLP and GSLP, a number of alternatives to the existing loan programs have been proposed, and student loans will continue to receive much attention. One of the major problems is the fact that students from lower-income families are not as willing to take out student loans as are students from middle-income families. This is the case for several reasons. The idea of credit and borrowing money may be foreign to some of these students. They may be averse to the notion of going into debt because of previous unfortunate experiences with debt. The amount of the loan may seem much greater to a lower-income student than to a middle-income student. They may not be able to obtain a GSL in their particular geographical area or because their family does not have an established relationship with a financial institution.

While the NDSLP is campus-based so that it is possible for a financial aid officer to grant a loan to students who were unable to obtain a GSL, the program is plagued by a high rate of default, 17 percent compared to 2 percent for consumer loans. This results from a combination of loans being made to borrowers whose only qualification for the loan is student status rather than a credit evaluation required for conventional loans, insufficient efforts to recover the loans, and perhaps a different attitude toward the repayment of a student loan.

Several attempts have been made to reduce the rate of default. One of these is the numerous unsuccessful moves by the past several administrations to completely phase out the NDSLP (Breneman, 1978: 62). Recently, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare has begun to put greater efforts into collecting repayments. The states which have guarantee agencies to administer the GSLP at the state level have lower rates of default; as a result, the establishment of these agencies in the remaining states has been encouraged by the Federal government.

> . . . the state agency programs have shown a better collection record, just as a footnote. The reasons for that are multiple. I think they have a smaller span of control. Very often they did have a follow-up in the collection procedure in place. (Boyer, 1977: 28).

These state agencies might be able to play a more active role than they have until now. Last spring Illinois began a unique program called the

Illinois Designated Accounts Purchasing Program (IDAPP). The Federal government requires a lender to spend 90 days attempting to collect a loan before it may be declared a default at which point the Federal government reimburses the lender. IDAPP allows the bank to turn over its potential defaults to the Illinois State Scholarship Commission for them to use the authority of the state to attempt to collect the money. In return, the financial institution agrees to grant new student loans with the funds which then become available to them. Because the program is so new, it is difficult to say how well it is working, but there is some indication that it has had some impact. For example, the First National Bank of Chicago announced that was setting aside $5 million for student loans, and that this decision was made because of the establishment of IDAPP.

Because of the various defects of the student loan programs, several alternatives have been proposed. One of these is the National Loan Bank which would combine the two loan programs so that they would be administered directly by the Federal government, perhaps with a fluctuating interest rate more closely tied to the cost of money. Another alternative is the Tuition Advance Fund (TAF) proposed by John Silber, President of Boston University. Under the TAF a student would be able to go to school and subsequently finance his education by paying a percentage of his income based on the average income associated with his occupation through the Internal Revenue Service. There are numerous variations on these two general themes.

While there is support on the part of some members of Congress for the replacement of the NDSLP and GSLP with an entirely new system of student loans, all of the higher education associations are opposed. There is broad agreement that loans should be an adjunct to family contributions and other assistance and that the existing loan programs can be adjusted to fulfill this role more effectively. There is opposition to any program which would rely primarily upon student loans to finance higher education. Underlying this is the philosophical question of what proportion of the costs of higher education is to be paid by society, parents, and students.

The public institutions, in particular, have long taken a strong position against any kind of student burden as opposed to low tuition, grants, and college work-study. Loan bank proposals are seen as the first step toward full-cost pricing of higher education relieving the Federal government and state government and state governments of any responsibility for the costs of higher education. They see the possibility for institutions to raise their tuitions because the money would be readily available through loans.

> Every state and Federal policy-maker should view with great caution proposals for long-term, high-interest loans, contingency repayment plans, and "student loan bank" or "tuition advance fund" proposals, to make sure they are not based on "hidden agenda" plans to force public higher education tuition much higher, and require many more students to rely on expensive loans. (AASCU, 1979)

NAICU, representing the private sector, calls for the renewal of the GSLP and NDSLP for a six-year reauthorization period (NAICU Public Policy Statement, 1979).

There are various proposals for modifications of the student loan programs to prevent students from assuming unmanageable debts. These include repayment to be related to income, the consolidation of debts so that a student has a single repayment schedule, repayment to be extended from ten to fifteen years, partial forgiveness for community service jobs, increased efforts to lower defaults, the loan program to be replaced entirely by a grant program (because of the high cost of loans due to interest subsidies, the Special Allowance, and defaults), a loan program for parents rather than students, and a simplification of the system of delivering student loans.

The loan programs remain one of the most controversial components of the student financial aid programs because of the need to strike a balance between assuring access to loan funds for those students who need them on the one hand and fiscal responsibility on the other. Not only is there no consensus about how to relieve the faults of the present loan programs, but there is no agreement regarding what the problems are.

An additional issue in the area of financial aid is Social Security educational benefits. As part of its FY 1980 budget the Administration is proposing the elimination of these Social Security benefits. The argument is made that Social Security educational benefits are a form of student financial aid because one must be a student to qualify for them, and that the creation of the BEOGP in 1972 subsequent to their establishment eliminates the need for them. Those recipients in need of financial aid and presently eligible for Social Security educational benefits would, it is argued, be eligible for a BEOG grant.

Save Our Security (SOS), a coalition of more than 50 political, religious, labor, aging, educational, and women's groups, has been formed in order to counter the proposed cuts. They contend that Social Security benefits are not student financial aid but a supplement to family income, to be used for living expenses year-round rather than merely for education-related expenses. As proof of this, SOS points out that the eligibility formula for BEOG's treats Social Security benefits as family income rather than as student financial aid.[1] It is also argued that these benefits go mainly to needy students who might not go to college without them.

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[1] In determining eligibility for BEOG's, Social Security benefits are considered family income and taxed at a very low rate. By removing Social Security benefits, BEOG eligibility increases only minimally, and the family suffers a substantial loss in income available for postsecondary education.

Low Tuition versus Financial Aid

In striking a balance between student aid and institutional aid, the question of who is to pay for higher education arises. Representatives of the public sector see student loans as a repudiation of the social benefits of higher education and of the role of Federal and state governments and of parents in paying for higher education.

> Historically, each generation financed the education of the next generation through the taxes it paid to state governments and through gifts and endowments. This was an investment in the intellectual resources of the country; a public responsibility fulfilled through each state's support of public higher education. Under the Federal student aid policies initiated during the Nixon administration, it becomes the responsibility of the student to secure financing for college. Public benefits of college are assumed to be minimal. (Ostar, 1977: 25-26)

Higher education is seen as a national resource whose benefits accrue not only to the individual but to the society as a whole.

The public sector associations stress low tuition as a more appropriate means than student financial aid of assuring equal access to higher education. It is claimed that equal access is better realized through low tuition instead of the bureaucratic entanglement of applications, eligibility forms, loan defaults, and enforcement officers.

> The Student Advisory Committee to the College Entrance Examination Board noted in a recent report that, "Many individuals who have little or no experience with the forms and procedures are intimidated by, if not excluded from, the system altogether. They do not speak the language of student financial aid . . . . The countless forms, the annual need analysis procedures, the trips to the financial aid office, and the hassles with private lenders are all problems which fall most heavily on the poor and lower middle-class. (Ostar, 1977: 28)

Student aid is seen to have the disadvantages of costly administrative expenses and inadequate delivery systems. Money spent on administering student aid funds could be spent directly on educational expenses.

> One of the better arguments to Congress is the fact that we are wasting 15 percent of the taxpayers' money on administrative costs. If the money were channelled to tuition offset, more Federal dollars would go to helping not just some students, but to helping all students. (Crest,1977: 15)

The National Coalition for Lower Tuition in Higher Education is a group of more than 40 associations representing organized labor, elementary and secondary education, college faculty, students, minority groups, women, veterans, older Americans, farm organizations, college administrators, and others. They see rising tuition as a cause of declining enrollments since students become less able to afford the costs of higher education. The concern is that student aid has become a substitute for low tuition.

On the other hand, representatives of the independent sector stress the major role to be played by student financial aid in assuring financial accessibility of higher education to everyone. Historically, colleges with a religious affiliation have shied away from institutional aid as a way of financing higher education because of the obstacle of the separation of church and state. While this is no longer a concern as a result of a 1976 Supreme Court decision,[1] NAICU supports institutional aid for colleges and universities only in the form of categorical aid for such purposes as construction and renovation of academic facilities to meet Federally-mandated requirements of energy conservation and equal access for handicapped persons (NAICU, 1979: 3-4).

Student Knowledge of Financial Aid Options

As student financial aid puts emphasis on the student as a consumer, there is the question of how much consumer information a student has about the availability of financial aid. This kind of knowledge may be the crucial factor in determining whether a student pursues higher education at all, as well as his choice of an institution. There is the question of whether a student obtains this information at all, at what age, and from what source.

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[1] In 1976 the Supreme Court upheld the award of public funds to a private college with a religious affiliation (Roemer vs. Board of Public Works of Maryland).

Three information problem areas have been identified:

1. general ignorance of costs and financial aid;
2. lack of specific estimates of costs and financial aid at a particular institution;
3. confusion about financial aid application processes (Olson, 1977: 416-417).

The first problem is particularly important in the case of students from low-income families who may be assuming that they cannot afford the cost, and therefore, may not academically prepare for postsecondary education. The second problem involves a lack of knowledge about costs, available financial aid, and expected family contribution until a very late date.

> These estimates are needed so that a family can compare the net cost (total cost minus financial aid) of several institutions, and thus be able to make an informed choice between such institutions. Often, families automatically rule out "higher priced" institutions on the assumption that they cannot afford them, or that they will not qualify for financial aid. Often the price differentials are much less than families originally expect. (Olson, 1977: 417)

A representative of AASCU, without the emphasis on higher priced institutions, makes the same point:

> For a large number of high school seniors and their parents, this prior knowledge may make the critical difference in deciding whether they can go to college at all, or which college they can attend. At a time when commuting to a public college can cost over $2,000 a year, attending a residential public college can cost $3,000, and a private college can cost $5,000 or more, this advance knowledge is essential. (Mallan, 1977: 19)

The higher education associations are united in their concern about student knowledge regarding the availability of financial aid. The question becomes how this information should be disseminated. One possibility is a National Student Aid Data Bank. Congressman Biaggi has introduced a bill to establish such a system which would provide a student with a list of all Federal, state, and major private sources of aid for which he might be eligible. This system would be run in cooperation with the Department of Labor's National Occupational Information Service, now operating in a number of states through schools and community facilities.

There is great variation among the states in terms of their information delivery systems. For example, in January 1979, Oregon established the first computer system which allows a high school student to enter at a computer terminal background information and three institutions. For each institution he receives information about college costs, financial aid he might expect to receive, and net cost. In California a consumer-oriented booklet describing student aid options was distributed to all 325,000 high school seniors this past year.

The student associations, USSA and COPUS, have been concerned about the underfunding of Information Allowances. These are given to institutions for the BEOG's, GSL's, and campus-based funds they process, to be used to provide students with information regarding financial aid.[1]

> There is no question that the information dissemination requirements of Sec. 493A are of utmost importance if the programs are to reach intended populations. (Parker, 1979)

There is concern on the part of NASFAA and the student associations, nonetheless, that these funds be used for their intended purpose rather than be added to an institution's general fund. There is little information on students' and parents' knowledge about the availability of financial aid, when they obtain it, and how. Many students apply to only one or two schools in their senior year, indicating that a decision regarding this selection was made at some point preceding the senior year of high school. This means that information from students prior to their senior year is important to learn the role of financial aid information in affecting college choice.

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[1] If all these allowances were fully funded for FY 79, they would total close to $100 million ($10/basic grant recipient; $10/GSL recipient; and four percent of campus-based funds).

Part-Time Students

While it was once the case that college students were mainly full-time students aged 18-22, more and more students have begun to follow non-traditional patterns of college attendance. One such pattern is less than full-time attendance. Current financial aid programs have not been responsive to this change. While student aid opportunities for students attending half-time or more were improved by MISAA, students attending less than half-time still are ineligible for student aid.

The public institution associations, along with retired persons, labor, and women's groups, are especially concerned about the status of part-time students. Because of the heavy concentration of part-time students in community colleges, AACJC has led the way in pleading the case of part-time students.

> All Federal student assistance programs were designed for the 18-22 year old, full-time, dependent student working toward a baccalaureate degree. Such students are the vast majority at private four-year universities, such as the COFHE institutions (which have a disproportionate amount of influence in Federal policy). (Hamilton, 1979: 5)

In order to improve the situation of part-time students, a group of higher education associations[1] has made the recommendation that the SEOG Program, now restricted to students enrolled at least on a half-time basis, should be modified to permit institutions to award grant aid to students enrolled for less than half-time credit.

> Federal legislation for two decades has provided great opportunity for full-time students and more recently for half-time students. Ironically, this has resulted in a situation in which many lower-income employees who work and pay taxes, part of which help to support student assistance to those free to attend school full-time and half-time, are themselves denied comparable assistance notwithstanding their own genuine needs. (Agenda, 1979: 11-12)

Because of the heavy concentration of part-time students in public institutions, the public sector associations have been concerned about the lack of financial aid programs to meet their needs.

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[1] These associations include AACJC, AASCU, ACE, Association of Catholic Colleges and Universities, ACCT, NASULGC, and National University Extension Association. This recommendation has also been endorsed by USSA.

CHAPTER FIVE

POLICY ISSUES, PROBLEM AREAS, AND INSTRUMENT DESIGN

Introduction

The preceding three chapters give an orientation to policy issues in the general domain of youth in high school and after. These policy issues are not all the matters of interest and concern relating to youth, but they are many of the principal matters that have been of public policy concern. Sometimes the debates on these issues have been informed by extensive research, but more often they have not. The aim of multi-purpose policy research such as High School and Beyond should be to aid in informing these debates - perhaps not on all the issues, and certainly not to arrive at conclusive policy "answers" - but to provide information that will illuminate the strength or weakness of various arguments.

In this chapter, we will begin where the preceding three chapters left off, to examine just what kind of information research like High School and Beyond might be capable of providing in each policy area, and to indicate what modifications of the research instruments and design can lead to providing better information.

In addition, there are certain problem areas in the general domain of the study in which the question is reversed: not what are the effects of certain programs, policies, or arrangements, but what are the causes of certain "problems" to which policy is or might be directed. In some part, this is a different way of looking at the same phenomena, but in some part it is not, and by examining selected problem areas, additional information-relevant questions are raised which can aid in further refining the research instruments.

Thus there are two kinds of policy relevance that High School and Beyond can have: information relevant to programs or policies, and information relevant to problem areas. The former concentrates on effects or outcomes of existing or potential policies, the latter concentrates on causes of problems. For the former, we will cluster policies and programs discussed in Chapters Two, Three, and Four into broad policy areas and then within each of these areas will examine three points:

a. General definition of the policy or program area;

b. Description of specific policies in national or state legislation, or in local practice;

c. The arguments, pro and con, concerning these polices, on which information can be provided, and specific ways the research, as currently designed, or through modifications, can do this.

Points (a) and (b) will briefly summarize policy areas and polices examined in Chapters Two, Three, and Four, and point (c) will make direct application to the questions of research and instrument design.

For problem areas, the points to be examined will be similar:

a. General definition of the problem area;

b. The major questions that exist for this problem area on which information can be provided, and specific ways the research can do this. The instruments are attached as Appendices 1a - 1f. In referring to specific items in those instruments, the items will be given a variable identifier. The variable identifier varies from 5 to 8 characters:

a. The first character (left justified) indicates the source of the question.

E--Senior (Elder)
Y--Sophomore (Younger)
B--Common to both senior and sophomore questionnaires or tests (Both)

b) The second character indicates the year the data were collected. For the base year 'B' is the code.

c) Characters three through eight indicate the question number.

The correspondence of this number to numbers in the individual questionnaires is given in a master list, attached as Appendix 2. In addition, the variable identifier appears on the instrument itself, along with the original item number.

The review carried out in this chapter has benefited from an August 1979 meeting of the National Planning Committee for High School and Beyond, at which an earlier draft of this chapter was discussed. At that meeting, the policy areas, specific issues, and design modifications were discussed. A number of changes and additions which were suggested have been incorporated here.[1]

The policy and problem areas will be discussed in an order corresponding to Chapters Two, Three, and Four: pages 174-193 address policies and problems in secondary education; pages 193-213, those in post-secondary activities other than higher education; and finally, pages 214-223 address those in higher education. Within each of these clusters, roughly the same order as used in Chapter Two, Three and Four has been preserved, although some variations have been introduced, and some grouping of policies has been carried out. In general, the examinations carried out in these three chapters serve as the basis for the work carried out in this chapter.

Effects of Schooling

The single most comprehensive and important policy or program in education is the overall program of the school, considered as a whole. This program is largely the product of the local school district, the school itself, and even the classroom. Although it is not a well-defined "policy" of the sort that could be examined in Chapter Two, it is a set of activities on which some information can be obtained by policy research. And it is a set of activities in which various parties are actively interested, because certain kinds of results will benefit some aspects of a school program, perhaps at the expense of others.

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[1] The National Planning Committee consists of: Ellis B. Page, Chairman; Robert Boruch, Bruce Eckland, Barbara Heyns, David S. Mundel, Robert C. Nichols, Sally Pancrazio, and David E. Wiley.

a. Definition of policy area: Every school has a program of activities, a set of principles of operation that are carried out in practice, whether verbalized as principles or not. There are specific aspects or dimensions of the program of a school that warrant study, and there is in addition the question of the overall effectiveness of the school's program. Because the program of the school is a locally-determined one, it is often overlooked as a program or policy (i.e., it is not the subject of legislation in Congress). But policy is being made every day at the local level in schools, through the kinds of school programs put into effect, and everyday decisions that principals and teachers make.

b. Description of specific aspects of the program: There are a number of program and policy decisions that have been described (e.g., Rutter et al., 1979) as "school processes." These concern policies about the degree and kind of discipline to impose in the school; the amount of homework assigned; the standards imposed by teachers; the amount of guidance counseling in the school; the content of the curriculum to which the student is exposed; the amount of exposure; the school's recognition of achievements, and so on. Rutter and his colleagues found (in a study which can only be regarded as suggestive because of the small number of cases and elementary analytical methods, but with richer data than most "school-effects" studies) that some school processes were related to achievement outcomes among the schools they studied.

Quite broadly, these "school processes" as examined in a number of studies, can be considered as the aspects of the program with potential effects to be examined.

c. Arguments and issues, and information that can be provided by the study: The central argument, which began as an academic one, but is of strong interest to school administrators, policy-makers who determine school budgets, and interest groups, is the effect of variations in school programs and policies (e.g., in ways described above) on outcomes of schooling. The interest to particular groups among educational producers should be evident: research which shows that class size is important to achievement is of great interest to teachers' groups, because it can be helpful in getting class sizes reduced; research which shows that guidance counselors are important is of great interest to guidance counselor groups; and so on. Much previous research has found little effects of variations in school programs, but it may well be that the research had poor measurement of the independent variables, poor measurement of intervening variables, and inappropriate dependent variables. It is critically important that this study have as adequate conceptualization and measurement of these variables as possible, so that analyses will be capable of showing those effects that are present.

The variables of importance are divided into three groups:

i) "Program variables," by which is meant characteristics of the school programs or policies, under control by school administration or teachers.

ii) "Intermediate variables," which include school climate, as well as those characteristics of the school that affect its quality as an educational setting, but are not under direct control of administration. Some of these variables, such as average amount of homework done, are themselves in part a consequence of program variables, while others, such as average mother's education, are independent of program variables, but nevertheless affect the educational setting of each of the students in the school.

iii) "Outcome variables, " which include, but are not limited to, scores on standardized tests. Other outcome variables are college attendance (and kind of college attended) immediately after high school, as well as ultimate level of schooling completed; dropping out of high school, and some other variables such as attendance that are endogenous, although they may also have effects on other outcomes.

These variables, and their measurement, are examined below. The outcome variables are examined first, then the intermediate variables, then the program variables. There are three potential comparisons by which effects of school programs can be examined: a) The comparison of 1980 sophomores with the same students as 1982 seniors. This will measure changes within the same students, and allows the most powerful forms of analysis at the level of individual students. This comparison implies attention to the 1982 seniors outcome variables on questionnaires and tests to maintain item comparability with 1980 sophomores. b) the comparison of 1980 sophomores to 1980 seniors in the same schools. This can allow measures of sophomore-senior differences on a school-by-school basis, allowing analysis which relates these differences to school characteristics. This comparison implies attention to comparability in tests and other outcome variables for 1980 seniors and sophomores. c) The comparison of 1980 seniors to 1972 seniors. This cannot be done on a school-by-school basis, but must be done by characteristics of schools. This comparison implies attention to comparability of 1980 seniors to the 1972 seniors, on outcome variables, intermediate variables, and program variables.

Outcome variables:

1) Test scores: The testing menus for seniors and sophomores are given in Appendices 2f and 2g. Here all that need be said is that since we view some

considerable fraction of the tests as outcome measures, there should be as much schooling-related (as over against ability-related) content as possible, and as much opportunity for measuring change from sophomore (1980) to senior (1982) as possible, and also the possibility of comparing differences between sophomores (1980) and seniors (1980). Test result comparisons between seniors (1980) and seniors (1972) should be possible as well. The tests contain some of these possibilities already, but any changes should be in the direction of more school-related content, particularly in mathematics and science. Second, item-by-item results should be available to analysts, together with copies of the test items, so particular schooling-related items can be picked out of tests for analysis.

2) College attendance: BB071, BB072F, BB072G, BB072H, BB115, EB117, EB118 EB121AA-EB121CC, YB114AA-YB114CC (for knowledge of financial aid, which may differ across schools; this item, however, is weak, as Chapter Nine illustrates) BB068A-BB068D (relative to BB071, BB072F, BB072G, BB072H). There is also the question of coding Senior Question 119 (name of college to be attended), which should in any case be done for the panel, to aid followup. Once coded, characteristics of the college such as a quality or selectivity measure, tuition cost, and location, can be coded as well. Some of these data are available from the National Commission for Higher Education Management Systems (NCHEMS). In addition, this outcome variable of college attendance must be measured in followups, by detailed educational histories between the times of the two questionnaires.

3) Dropping out of high school: To be measured for sophomores in the first followup.

4) Attendance and tardiness: BB016, BB017.

5) Disciplinary problems: BB059B, BB059D, BB059E, BB061A.

6) Other changes between sophomore and senior year will also contribute outcome variables, for example change of program, BB002, and changes in plans

for finishing high school between sophomore and senior year, that is, YB003, YB004 vs. EB001 two years later.

*Another possibility as a dependent variable for which our standardized test scores can be used as a control variable: Ask how many advanced placement tests the student has taken.

Intermediate variables:

Most of these variables are obtained from aggregating student variables over the school, to get a school measure. Only a sampling of such variables is listed here.[1]

7) Academic Character of average student program: EB004A-EB004K, YB009A-YB009K

8) Mobility in school: EB010, YB011

9) Average homework level: BB015

10) Average absences and tardiness: BB016, BB017

11) Average extracurricular activities: BB032A-BB0320

12) Average father's occupation, mothers occupation: BB038, BB041

13) Average Fathers education, mother's education: BB039, BB042

14) Average activities outside school: BB047A-BB047H

15) Average friends' plans: BB051D

16) Average discipline: BB059B, BB059D, BB059E, BB061A, Teachers Comment Form 10

17) Teachers' knowledge of students and parents: Teachers Comment Form 1, 2

18) Teachers' assessment of student discipline: Teachers Comment Form 9

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[1] A methodological point in examining school effects is this: Nearly all the school "program" variables are identical for all seniors on which we have data, and for the sophomores as well. Consequently, when there is a variable that is endogenous, like attendance, but may also affect other outcomes, the analysis of the effect of program variables upon this must be carried out at the school level, and when examining effects of "average school attendance" on behavior of students in the school, this also must be done at the school level.

19) Teachers' response on student discipline: Teachers Comment Form - Sophomore Students 12A, 12B

20) Problems as seen by central office: SB056A - SB056N

21) The outcome variable listed above as 1-6: In a system with serveral interdependent endogenous variables, most of the outcome variables 1-6 appear both as independent and dependent. Thus they not only fall into the class of outcome variables; they are "intermediate" variables as well.

22) Average knowledge of minimum competency: BB054, BB055, BB056 relative to SB023

Program variables:

23) Demand: There is a possibility that SAT, ACT, & ASVAB scores for respondents will be added to the file but provisions for doing so have not yet been made. Average grade are available in BB01.

24) Rules: YB020A - YB020E, SB054A - SB054E.

25) Attributes of discipline demanded in the school BB053F, BB053G, (This is one variable Rutter found important.)

26) Specialized vs. generalized teachers: Teachers Comment Form - Sophomore Students 11

27) Teacher racial mix: SB091F, SB092F, SB093F, SB094F, SB095F

28) Course activities: EB03A - EB03F

29) Minimum competency test: SB023

30) Type of school: SB001A, SB001B

31) Courses available: SB018A - SB018T

32) Tracking: SB019, SB020

33) Facilities: SB027A - SB027J

34) Library size: SB028

35) Programs in school: SB029AA - SB029BC4

36) Non-full-time students: SB030A, SB030B

37) Participation in Federal programs: SB032A - SB032I

38) Staff-student ratio: SB002A-SB002C, SB039A - SB039L

39) Teachers' education: SB042

40) Teacher mobility: SB043

41) Teacher absence: SB044

42) Teacher experience: SB045

43) Measure of an "Alternative education: program: EB013

Policies Related To Particular Subgroups among Student Populations

a. Definition of policy area: There are a number of interest groups representing special subpopulations, which have in recent years pressed for policies aiding their constituencies, sometimes with success. Examples are PL 94-142 (involving mainstreaming of the handicapped), legistlation funding bilingual education, the inclusion in much legislation of clauses concerning special attention to women's equity, and various pieces of legislation protecting the rights of blacks. Policies involving two of these special subpopulations, handicapped and women, were discussed in detail in Chapter Two. They together with others, such as bilingual programs for non-English-speaking students, generate similar arguments and issues, and are thus grouped together for examination here.

b. Description of specific policies: The Federal policies examined in Chpater Two are PL 94-142, covering education of the handicapped, and Title II of the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 and the Women's Educational Equity Act (1974), covering treatment of women in education. Those policies are described in detail there. These policies have two principal components: requirements and prohibitions in the treatment of these subpopulations which occasion changes in practice that affect the functioning of the school but do not entail additional costs; and requirements which necessitate new or revised programs, involving additional costs. Examples of the former are mainstreaming of handicapped children and removing sex differences in rules of behavior or disciplinary actions. Examples of the latter are the Individualized Educational Program (IEP) for handicapped children and funding of women's athletic teams equal to that of men's.

c. Arguments and issues on which High School and Beyond can provide information: The arguments and concerns relating to these pieces of legislation are several. On the part of the special interests which have advocated them, the principal concern is whether the legislation is being implemented as required by law. In principal, they have an interest as well in the degree to which the legislation is having the intended effect; but this appears to be secondary to the former interest.[1] Despite its sometimes secondary importance for the organized special interest groups themselves, it is of obvious importance to the constituency they represent, and is thus important to examine.

The arguments and concerns on the part of groups which do not support this legislation (or groups which are ambivalent) have to do with the two aspects of these "mandates" described under (b) above: the changes in practice they necessitate, and the new programs involving additional costs. It is argued that mainstreaming of emotionally disturbed children, for example, destroys the order of the classroom, and seriously interferes with the other children's classwork. An it is argued that the newly mandated but underfunded programs for the handicapped take funds from the education of other children, and thus emasculate the school's educational program.

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[1] This is a common phenomenon: the means (specific legislation) become the goals, displacing the original goals (improvement of the subpopulation's conditions). The phenomenon seems most pronounced when there is protracted conflict over the means, and when there is a specific group or organization formed to win that conflict.

Some information can be provided on each of these concerns on the part of advocates and opponents, though in no case is this as extensive as would be obtained in a special study.

1) First it is necessary to have a measure of the attribute in question. Measurement of a physical handicapp is by BB087A-BB087G, BB088 self-report. An additional report is by the teacher, in Teacher Comment Form 10. For emotionally disturbed children, there is only the teacher's report; but this is probably the only way of getting such a datum. Measurement of sex is by BB083, and of race and ethnicity BB089, BB090.

*2) As a measure of an independent variable in treatment of the handicapped, varying state policies may be used (as in other policy areas) as natural experiments. Although PL 94-142 has already come into effect, some states with policies very different from that are only in the process of implementing it. Others have had somewhat similar practice for at least several years. Consequently, the timing of High School and Beyond makes it possible to use these variations in state policy as independent variables in examining effects of the policy, both those hoped for by the advocates and those feared by the opponents.

3) Concerns about implementation: Questions BB002, EB004A-EB004K, YB009A-YB009K, BB011A-BB011I, BB014A-BB014I give a good profile of the student's participation in the curricular activities of the school. EB032A-YB034L give a profile of participation in extra-curricular activities. For women, EB031A and EB032B are important to measure athletic participation; they divide athletic participation into varsity teams and "other" teams, including intramural and junior varsity. Other categories in EB032A-YB034L when examined by sex by school will give a measure of the

degree to which extra-curricular activities are integrated by sex in the school. For racially integrated schools, this item will give a measure of the degree to which extra-curricular activities are integrated by race.

For the handicapped, some idea of implementation of the mainstreaming provision of PL 94-142 can be gained from SB035A - SB035L in the school questionnaire.

4) Effects of the mandates and the program: It is difficult to separate "implementation" and "effects" in the areas of participation in various curricular and extra-curricular activities, for these are choices partly made by the school and partly by the student. If the choice were the school's alone (as in some of the treatment of the handicapped), then these would be measures of implementation. If the choice were the student's along, they would be measures of effects, as the term is used here.

Measures of the school's curricular treatment of women (confounded, of course, by the women's own preferences independent of the school) are in curriculum, EB004A-EB004K, and YB009A - YB009K. Measures of participation in various vocational education programs require a better measurement than BB002.

For blacks, an implementation-or-effect measure is the degree of tracking and grouping. A measure of tracking is obtained in SB019, SB020, though perhaps fewer than four questions will suffice.

In addition to these "intermediate effects," as they might be called, there are all the school outcome variables treated earlier under the section on effects of schooling. Many of these outcome variables for school programs in general measure intended outcomes of the specially mandated program for subpopulations.

Finally, there is an important intended effect of the program in the area of psychic health, self-concept, and other emotional states. These have been discussed as intended outcomes principally by advocates of legislation for women's equity and legislation for black's equity. These are measured in EB052A - EB052E, B0058A - BB0058L, BB059A - BB059F, BB060, BB061A - BB061G, YB064A - YB064J.

*5) Negative side effects of the mandates: A frequently-mentioned negative side effect of some of the Federal mandates to protect certain subpopulations is the fact that they may reduce the authority of the school and lead to an increase in disorder. While the present research is not perfectly suited to the study of this question, there are certain things which may be done. First, there should be a question on the student questionnaire concerning the strength of discipline or authority exercised by the school administration. In other analyses (e.g., study of school effects), this will be used as an independent variable. Here it is of interest as a dependent variable, a possible outcome of the constraints imposed by mandates. As a measure of the policy, there are several possibilities. One is the comparison of private schools, not subject to these mandates, with public schools, both with regard to the discipline imposed and with regard to actual behavior of students. Another is the introduction into the school questionnaire of an item asking the time distribution of the school principal, with one category (or set of categories) being activities related to due process constraints and mandates involving equity for subpopulations. The amount of time thus spent would constitute an independent variable in the analysis of order and discipline in the school. This constitutes, however, a weak measure of the policy. One specific possibility as a possible negative effect of PL 94-142 is the use of SB035I to distinguish those schools in whch emotionally disturbed children attend regular classes. This would be a program variable with possible effects on discipline problems as mentioned under (6) of the section on effects of schooling. The ideal dependent variable for this is the amount of time the teacher spends on discipline in the classroom, measured in Teacher's Comment Form - Sophomore Students 12A, 12B. Perhaps a more interesting question in relation to mainstreaming of emotionally disturbed students is what kinds of schools are able to do this without increased disorder and discipline problems.

The principal difficulty with examination of the negative side effects of Federal regulations is their universality across all public schools. One ray of hope: it might be that states may be characterized according to the relative autonomy they allow their schools, versus the number and severity of state regulations and mandates. These variations could be coded, and again the states used as natural experiments to learn any effects of these variations on discipline demanded from students, discipline problems posed bv students, and other measures of school functioning.

Effects of School Integration

a. Definition of policy area: School desegregation policy is primarily policy that has evolved from court decisions, supplemented by HEW. This has in the past been elimination of dual school districts, but has increasingly come to be affirmative integration based on beliefs about benefits resulting from school integration.

b. Description of specific policies: Some school desegregation has been carried out through assignment of students to non-neighborhood schools to which they are bussed. Other policies include voluntary desegregation, sometimes involving magnet schools, sometimes not.

c. Arguments and issues on which High School and Beyond can provide information: One issues, concerning the extent of white flight, cannot be addressed by this research design. Another, the relative achievement in integrated schools, can be. Also, the effects of integrated versus segregated schools on various other school outcomes discussed in the section on effects of schooling can be studied. In addition, effects of policy variations in assignment of students (compulsory versus voluntary integration) can be studied. What is important is to have good measures of the independent variables, which can be characterized as:

1) Current racial composition of school: SB0915, SB0925, SB0935, SB0945, SB0955, and aggregation over students in school of BB089 and BB090.

2) A measure of bussing: SB015

3) A measure of the way students are assigned to the school, SB055.

4) Previous racial composition of school. We can obtain for most of the public schools, racial composition going back to 1968, using OCR tapes.

*5) A measure, for each student, exists on the racial composition of his school in first, sixth and ninth grades (BB105A - BB105C). The only use of this would be to further examine the effect of integration over a long period on black achievement. But probably that's sufficient reason to keep it. A similar question concerning Hispanic composition of school, is BB106A - BB106C.

6) Racial composition of staff: SB091F, SB092F, SB093F, SB094F, SB095F.

Minimum Competency Tests

a. Definition of policy area: Minimum competency tests are now given in a large number of schools. There is wide variation in the policies, and great uncertainty about the consequences of the testing for various outcomes of schooling.

b. Description of specific policies: The variations in minimum competency testing cover a number of dimensions. One is the times and frequency with which the tests are given, ranging from a single test in the senior year to a test each year. Another is the availability or requirement of remedial instruction. Still another is in the content of the tests themselves. In many states, they cover additional competencies beyond basic skills.

c. Arguments and issues on which information can be provided: Arguments concern the effect of minimum competency on increasing levels of achievement (an intended effect), on increasing levels of dropout (an unintended effect), and on increasing the relative failure rate of minorities (another unintended effect). What is necessary to study these effects are measures of independent variables related to minimum competency tests at the school and individual level.

*1) Independent variables: At the school level there is a measure (K198), and at the individual level, there is a measure of his awareness of it (BB054, BB055, BB056), but not whether he has taken the test, nor if he has, whether he has passed it. Possibly, these measures are practically unobtainable; but possibly he can be asked that question. The awareness measure may be used to test inferences about potential effects (e.g., dropout) that imply knowledge of the test.

*2) Inter-state variation makes possible the use of states as natural experiments in studying effects of minimum competency testing, as well as dimensions of variation in that testing, on outcome variables of interest. What is necessary is to collect and code state-level information about the existence of and dimensions of minimum competency testing required of schools in the state.

*3) Outcome variables: The same variables as in the section on effects of schooling are relevant here. There is an additional potential outcome: whether activities that do not contribute to passage of the test will survive in schools with minimum competency as a requirement for graduation. This can be studied, at least for the short run, by use of EB032A - YB034L, as well as some information on range of school activities from school questionnaire.

Tuition Tax Credits and Vouchers

a. Definition of policy area: In Michigan in 1978 and prospectively in California in November, 1980, vouchers have become a referendum issue at the state level. Tuition tax credits, a mild support for private schools, has become an issue in the Congress. The basic policy issue is the degree and kind of support to private elementary and secondary schools.

b. Description of specific policies: The voucher proposal in California would allow each student to choose between a private scholsarship school, a public scholarship school, and a regular public school. The proposal, as with the other voucher proposals, and to lesser extent the tuition tax credit proposals, is to make it possible for all families, independent of income, to choose between public and private schools.

c. Arguments and issues on which information can be provided: The central issue concerns the merits of expanding and making open to all the choice of private school. Arguments, which are intense, are along the following lines:

1) Do private schools do better with equivalent students, or is any success they have due to selectivity of students? All the dependent variables and intermediate variables used in the section on effects of schooling are relevant here. The independent or "program" variable is private versus public, and perhaps a subclassification within private, say between Catholic and non-Catholic.

*2) Do private schools do better (or worse) with students who have special problems, either physical handicap, emotional handicap, or some kind of learning disability? BB087A - BB087G, BB088, Teacher's Comment Form 10 as a measure of handicap. Classically, some private schools have been used by high-income parents for children with handicaps or learning disabilities. It is possible to obtain measures of the fraction of students at the school who are handicapped SB034 and how many attend remedial classes SB021, SB022.

3) What are characteristics of private schools that have better educational outcomes? All the analyses in the section on effects of schooling, within private schools, is relevant here.

4) Do private schools do better or worse for black and Hispanic students? This is basically to be answered by the special study of Catholic schools with black and Hispanic populations, compared to public schools having students with comparable backgrounds. This will be supplemented by analysis of black and Hispanic student outcomes in non-Catholic private schools.

5) Do private schools contribute to increased segregation by race?

a) How does racial segregation compare in public and private schools, given the proportion minority in private and public, in selected SMSAs. Racial composition is obtained by SB00915, SB00925, SB00935, SB00945, SB00955 or aggregating race from student questionnaire.

b) How does the segregation compare, given only the overall racial composition of the SMSA? (This is relevant to the potential of private schools for white flight.)

6) What are the costs of private and public schools? SB053A, SB053B.

Discipline and In-School Behavior as a Problem Area

a. Definition of problem area: A major problem area of public concern, in which there has been little if any explicit policy at state and Federal levels, is disciplinary problems in schools. Such problems constitute an undesirable outcome in themselves for the youth who exhibit them, for they signal some kind of maladjustment between the student and the school. But in addition, they constitute a degradation of the school environment for other youth, making the school a less desirable place to be. These problems, insofar as they differ between public and private schools, are also a source of loss of confidence in the public schools, and loss of students to private schools. The problem area has been characterized by school staff as well as the public in recent years as the one most important problem in the public schools. It is a problem which, it is generally believed, has grown worse in recent years.

b. Questions on which information can be provided, and how this research can do so: Perhaps the most useful approach of this research would be to characterize both the school and the student according to discipline problems. Schools can be characterized according to the level of indiscipline within them, and then by controlling on the background characteristics of students, a measure can be obtained for each school of its indiscipline-proneness, standardized by student background. This constitutes a dependent variable at the school level for which causes can be sought in school characteristics, including some which are imposed by state or Federal requirements.

For studying the causes of disciplinary problems in the school, it is imtained by aggregation of response to certain items on the student questionnaire, especially, as discussed earlier, BB059B, BB059D, BB059G and BB061A. There is also a report from the teacher comments checklist Teachers Comment Form - Sophomore Students 12A, 12B that can be used. It is also useful to have the measures of the disciplinary requirements of the school in SB054A - SB054E.

Another dependent variable is a measure of the dispersion of disciplinary problems in the school. This may be obtained by the standard deviation, over the school, of measures of individual disorder - such as BB059B, BB059D, BB059E, BB061A. The standard deviation of other items of behavior, such as attendance BB016 and tardiness BB017 are also useful for this.

Finally, a measure of the "behavior improvement" between grades and 10 and lw in the school can be obtained by the difference between aggregate measures of behavior problems for the two cohorts, or (using the first follow-up), differences in behavior reported by the same students as sophomores and seniors.

II. Policies and Problems in Post-Secondary Activities

Work and Occupation-Related Programs and Policies within High Schools

a. Definition of policy area: In Chapter 3 were discussed various programs--local, state, and national--designed to provide occupational training or knowledge and prepare a young person more directly for occupation than the classical model of the school. Some of these, such as the Neighborhood Youth Corps, CETA work programs, the California and then Federal Youth Conservation Corps, city summer jobs programs, and others, are largely outside school. But another broad class are either carried out wholly within school or are (like the cooperative education programs) managed by the school and carried out partly in school, partly in a work setting. It is this latter class of programs and policies that will be addressed here. The programs are diverse, and have carried a number of names, such as vocational education, career education, cooperative education, but altogether they constitute a class that can be considered together. In Chapter 3, these programs were considered under two headings corresponding to current federal legislation: vocational education and career education.[1]

b. Specific policies and programs: The attempt to modify the model of classical education in high school by introducing more practical, occupationally-related training has a long history in America. It constitutes half of a continuing dialectic in secondary (and postsecondary) education between the classical ideal of a liberal and intellective education on the one hand and practical training on the other. The specific movements in the latter direction have had distinctive names. One was manual training, of industrial skill training with the classical college preparatory high school. Another was industrial arts, a movement at its peak in the 1930s and 1940s, in which students were intended to learn something about a broad range of manual skills, rather than to be prepared specifically for any one. The conflict between these two orientations, narrow training in depth vs. broad and shallow training, remains a central issue in work-related training.

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[1] The particular policy area grouping that we carry out has a danger of precluding the investigation of certain kinds of questions that separate policy areas. For example, by grouping the school-related work and occupation programs separately from the employment and training policies outside school, there is a danger of failing to examine the arguments for policies in one of these areas rather than the other. By recognizing this danger, however, it is possible to protect against it. For the example given, the issue of school-related vs. outside-school programs is raised within the latter policy area (see p. 205).

The current policies in school-related work and occupation training are described in Chapter 3. They are briefly summarized below.

Vocational education is the principal current program of federal policiy in this area, funded at $600 million in 1979. While vocational education programs are more diverse than they were, they can be characterized as follows: a) occupational training carried out largely in workshops in the school, not in actual jobs; b) training for blue collar and lower white collar (e.g., secretarial) jobs; c) training for a specific occupation, rather than obtaining acquaintance with a number of occupations.

In recent years, with the stimulus of Federal funds, a number of area vocational schools with large catchment areas have been built in non-urban locations. Some of these schools do not have enrollments of their own, but take students on a part-time basis from surrounding schools.

Cooperative education is a variant upon vocational education. Begun in the 1960s, this is an instructional plan which combines study at school in a vocational program with regularly supervised employment. Students alternate between study and work, but the arrangements are flexible (it may be half a day at school and half a day at work or working every other day or even every other week). Again, the occupations are heavily concentrated in manual trades, training is for a specific job, and the training typically provides the required skills and knowledge for a beginning job.

Another work-related activity that is administered through the high school (and eligible for funding under the Vocational Education Act) are work-study programs. These programs were also begun in the 1960s in many localities and are designed to provide financial assistance through part-time employment both to students enrolled in vocational training and to other students. The work experience, though it may be helpful to the individual, is not necessarily related to the student's program of study. Thus work-study is not part of training for a specific occupation.

Career education as a program of work-related training is the sharpest departure from traditional vocational education in recent years. The term "career education" is a U.S. Office of Education-inspired term, which has not yet found a unitary definition. It moves away from the blue-collar connotations of the preceding programs toward a broader class of occupations (and significantly, it is supported by business organizations and not by AFL-CIO, while the reverse has been true of vocational education). It is motivated in part by a dual reaction: against occupation-specific training provided by vocational education, and against the "purely academic" orientation of college preparatory programs. But because it was defined negatively, there was been little consensus in practice on what career education programs consist of. In part it has served as an umbrella term which allowed a district to implement a program of its choice.

Most career education programs in local schools are locally financed, with business-related organizations (NAB, Chamber of Commerce) being the strongest supporters of these programs, which have a wide diversity of content, as implied above. States are in various stages of legislating and implementing something regarding career education. But the only common element in these programs is the name.

Schools without walls: Since the 1960s, when alternative schools began, one form has been the "school without walls," of which the prototype was the Parkway School in Philadelphia. This carries the to-the-workplace movement further, by virtually abandoning the classroom for an apprentice-like setting, though at the opposite extreme in the structure of authority. The overall curriculum and the specific activities are primarily at the student's option and even initiative, so that the school career as a whole is quite unstructured. The occupations in which apprentice-like training is obtained tend to be more arts-and crafts than industrial, though this varies.

Altogether, we can say there are at the national level two legislatvely-mandated programs, vocational education, which with $600 million appropriation in 1979 actually helps support some school programs, career education, with $32.5 million appropriateed in 1979 (more authorized in 1980) primarily to induce states and localities to initiate "career education" programs. At the state level, there are vocational education officers and in some states the beginning of career education officials. At the local level, there is a rather well-defined set of entities, vocational schools, and vocational programs within a school. In some localities as well, there is an area vocational school which has as students part-time attendees enrolled in other schools. There is, in addition, at the local level a much more diverse set of programs called cooperative education, work-study, career education, and some rare cases of schools without walls.

Because there is a variety of programs under the same label, it would be a mistake to attempt to discover the effects of "vocational education," "career education," or any other named program. Instead, it is necessary to recognize that programs vary along several dimensions and to try to discover the effects of each of these dimensions. The principal dimensions are:

1. The locus of training:
    - (a) Academic and vocational training at school: most vocational education is like this.
    - (b) Academic at school, some vocational at school, some at workplace: cooperative education programs are like this, and some career education programs.
    - (c) Academic at school, vocational wholly at workplace: work-study programs are like this, as well as some career education.
    - (d) Virtually all training outside classroom at workplace: schools without walls (rare).
2. The degree to which a given student's training is occupation-specific:
    - (a) Training for a specific occupation: vocational education, cooperative education are like this.
    - (b) Broad training and knowledge of multiple occupations: most career education is of this sort, work-study sometimes is, and schools without walls usually are.
3. The occupational types covered:
    - (a) Industrial and commercial occupations (blue-collar, low-level white collar): vocational education, most work-study, cooperative education are all principally of this type.
    - (b) Broad spectrum of occupations: career education covers a broad spectrum of occupations.

4. The degree of structure and authority:

    (a) Teacher-student authority structure: vocational education.

    (b) Supervisory authority of the workplace, which may vary greatly: work-study and cooperative education contain such authority.

    (c) One program, the school without walls, has in its ideological origins significantly less structure and authority than the others, although in practice, the authority of the workplace may vary widely.

c. Arguments and issues, and information that can be provided by the study: At the Federal level, vocational education categorical funding has been under attack (most recently by Califano); it could, depending on the array of forces, be increased or decreased. The main issues that have been raised by advocates and opponents concern its effects, both intended and unintended. The effects are principally the effects of dimensions 1 and 2 above. Some opponents argue that occupation-specific training is inefficient, because subsequent employment is often in a different occupation. Other opponents argue that occupation-specific training gets people slotted into jobs. Advocates argue that it is this specificity that gives them value on the labor market. Opponents (often not the same as the above opponents) argue that occupational training at the workplace is more effective than training in school shops; advocates argue the opposite. Advocates also argue that youth with vocational education training are more likely to be employed in the private sector (i.e., in "productive" jobs), and more likely to be self-employed, beginning new businesses and hiring others. They argue as well the benefits of membership in vocational occupation clubs.

To examine these arguments, it is necessary first to measure the independent variables (not merely "vocational education," but occupation-specificity of training, and degree to which it is school-based). These are as follows:

*1. Occupation-specificity of training: BB002, BB006A-BB006Q.

*2. The locus of training BB014A, BB014B, BB014A, BB026. These questions about participation in a co-op or work-study program, get at the locus of training and at the amount of school time spent at occupational training in a workplace. EB012 asks how much of the day is spent in course work at another school. Also, in asking about jobs BB018-BB033, there is a question about amount of time, if any, spent in explict training.

3. In order to separate out the effect of self-selection into a program, it is important to have (and use) a question in the school questionnaire SB017C1Y-SB017C7E on the vocational programs in the school. Thus for examining occupational and other post-secondary outcomes, the aggregate values in these outcomes, standardized for background and other school differences, between schools with and without vocational programs would give a proper test.

*4. In addition, certain of the argued effects are a function of being in what is called a "vocational education" program, apart from its characteristics (see (4), (6), (7), (8) below). Consequently this must be measured: BB002.

*5. Finally, some argued effects are a function of membership in a vocational occupation club in high school: BB032L.

The dependent variables of interest are listed below, together with items measuring them, and proposed modifications:

1. The speed and ease of finding a job: EB073 gives information about whether the student has a job arranged before graduation. However, this variable will be measured principally by work-histories in the first follow-up.

2. Employability, continuity in employment, and frequency of unemployment: These will be measured by work histories, in first and subsequent follow-up.

3. Wages: As in (2)

4. Truncation of education: This can be measured both in terms of educational plans, for which there are current measures BB065 YB072A-EB068D, BB071, E114, EB117, BB120 and in terms of actual subsequent

educational histories. Latter will be obtained in first follow-up and can be examined both for the sophomore-to-senior period (dropping out of high school) and for the post-secondary period.

5. "Slotting" into jobs, i.e., subsequent occupational mobility: Work histories obtained in first and later follow-ups will allow estimation of occupational mobility for youth who were in different kinds of high school programs.

*6. Sex and race tracking: BB002 will give descriptively the variation in occupational category by sex and race, but cannot identify the degree to which student or school is responsible for the variation. YB002 can aid this for sophomores. Work histories in follow-up can discover the degree to which vocational category is related to subsequent wages and occupation, controlling on other factors. Also, comparison of BB002 with 1972 will possibly allow some estimate of effect of provisions in 1976 legislation to improve vocation education of minorities and women.

*7. Consonance between employment and occupation trained for: BB002, BB062, BB113, toether with work history from first follow-up allows measurement of this consonance.

*8. Self-employment and new-business startups: This is measured by work histories in first and (especially) subsequent follow-ups.

The second Federal policy is career education. Vocational education is a fairly well-defined set of programs in school; thus the principal questions and debates concern the effects of this set of programs. Career education, however, is not well-defined. Thus the principal questions concern the incidence as well as the effects of specific kinds of programs, so that the policies can gain some direction. This is of most importance for state and local policies, since the programs are designed and implemented there.

There are, perhaps, two arguments that advocates of career education have about its effects that have not been discussed above. These are the argument that workplace-based career education gives stronger work values, and the argument that career education "in general" gives broader knowledge of different occupations. The item numbers listed beside them are indicators of measures of these dimensions themselves. These measures are necessary both to give independent variables for effects and to allow measuring the incidence of different types of programs. Most of the possible effects of these dimensions of variation are those listed under vocational education, and thus will not be repeated. Only additional effects will be listed.

*1. The occupational types covered: Only BB002, when aggregated over the school, and SB017C1Y-SB017C7E give a measure of occupational types covered in occupation-related training.

*2. The degree and type of structure and authority: BB027A-BB027E.. YB002 is a question about freedom in selecting program.

Additional effects:

3. Work habits, work discipline, attendance, promptness: YB016, BB016, BB017, Teachers Comment Form 9, as well as data from work histories in first follow-up. Also comparison of changes from sophomore to senior year.

Employment and Training Policies Outside School

a. Definition of policy area: A second broad set of policies and programs discussed in Chapter 3 are those related to employment and training, but located outside school. In general, these policies fall under the administrative authority of the Department of Labor rather than HEW, a fact with a number of consequences: First, in DOL, youth are considered in the context of the labor force as a whole; thus the competition and conflicts of interest are between youth and adults. For similar programs and policies in HEW (such as those discussed in the preceding section), the competition and conflict of interest is between vocational and other educational programs. In DOL policies for job training for youth, for example, the decision to allocate funds for job training comes first; the partitioning of this between adults and youth comes second. In similar HEW policies (i.e., vocational education), all educational policy is focussed on youth; what comes second is the partitioning between vocational and other educational functions.

A second consequence of DOL's jurisdiction over these policies is that their design and execution are much more closely associated with labor (and to a lesser extent, employer) groups than is true for HEW programs, and less associated with educational groups. A third conseqence is that the programs are largely Federally funded, while the school-related programs are largely state and locally funded. And a fourth is that the programs are more often intended to provide subsistence income along with training. A result of these last two points is that Federal allocations for these programs are in general larger than for the school-related programs.

Most of the issues in this broad area of policy have focussed around one set of programs--employment and training programs--and one policy--minimum wage policy. Both are addressed below.

b. Specific policies and programs: At the Federal level, employment and training programs have been diverse and multiple in the past, but most are currently funded under a single act, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). The youth portion of CETA (about a tenth of the total) is currently $1 billion per year. The apparent centralization, which seems to imply a similar program everywhere, thus facilitating studies of program effects, is misleading, however, for CETA merely funds local prime sponsors (ordinarily large localities, such as cities), who design programs subject to minimal Federal constraints. Some of these programs, such as the Job Corps, are carried over from earlier acts. Others, newly authorized in CETA, such as Youth Community Conservation, may be sufficiently homogeneous that knowing the name of the program itself will provide sufficient information about its characteristics.

Thus to measure, even in a crude way, effects of Federally financed CETA programs, it is not sufficient merely to measure dependent variables of the sort that were listed under vocational education in the preceding section; it is necessary also to measure dimensions of the programs themselves.[1] Even so, it is dubious that High School and Beyond can contribute materially to an "evaluation of CETA"; the best that can be hoped for is to evaluate the effects of certain dimensions of employment and training programs.

With regard to minimum wage, the specific policy around which controversy has developed is a lower minimum wage for youth. Minimum wage legislation exists at Federal and state levels. State levels are sometimes lower than Federal, and thus Federal takes precedence; but they sometimes cover a wider range of jobs. At the hearings on the last minimum wage bill, there was extensive discussion of a lower youth minimum wage, but this provision failed to pass Congress. In some states, there is a state youth minimum wage. Thus what exists here is not a program designed to benefit youth employment, but policies that would have the effect of raising their wages if employed, but may also have the effect of reducing their employment opportunities.

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[1] A comparable example is evaluation of Headstart programs, which were locally designed and locally run. It has been argued that one reason the major evaluations found so little in the way of effects is that the the programs were so diverse, and most attention was paid to measuring outcomes rather than aspects of the program.

c. Arguments and issues, and information that can be provided by the study: It is five dimensions that have been the major issues, supported or opposed by various groups, in the design of employment and training programs at the Federal level and the state level, and in the local design of CETA programs by prime sponsors. The balance of forces on one or the other side of these issues has led to a number of amendments of CETA at the Federal level, and to the shape of programs at state and local levels, and information relevant to the issues undoubtedly affects the balance of forces. The dimensions are:

i. Training programs vs. employment programs
    a. Training in educational institutions (high schools and community colleges) vs. new institutions (as in Job Corps programs)

ii. Summer work vs. work during the school year

iii. Public sector vs. private sector jobs

iv. Locally administered vs. centrally administered programs

v. Residential programs vs. non-residential programs

The principal aims of the CETA programs are two: one is to absorb some portion of existing unemployment--i.e., merely a maintenance program--and the other is to increase the employability of its participants. High School and Beyond can provide little useful information about the first, but it may be able to provide some information about the second. These effects are all like those described earlier under vocational education policy, and will not be repeated here. What is essential is to measure dimensions of the program in which a youth has participated. With these dimensions as independent variables, the outcomes or effects discussed earlier constitute dependent variables. Measurement of the dimensions is discussed below:

*1. The central problem for employment and training programs is that of measuring characteristics of the work or job training experience. In some cases, this is provided by the name of the program itself. The questions BB025, BB014A-BB014B, BB014H do this, but it is important that we are certain to get the names right.

*2. Training vs. employment programs. BB014H, BB025, BB026.

*3. Training in existing vs. new educational institutions: BB014A, BB014B, BB014H. In addition the first follow-up will give information about participation in various kinds of post-secondary educational and training programs.

*4. Public sector vs. private sector jobs BB025. This is important if High School and Beyond is to examine the claim that public service jobs are less effective for later nonsubsidized employment than are private sector jobs. It is also important to have that information in order to assess the relative current impact on the outcomes listed earlier of private-sector jobs obtained on one's own and publicly-funded employment in training programs.

*5. Summer employment vs. school-year employment: Measurement of work during summer vs. school year is obtainable by BB021, BB022, BB030, BB031. To control for self-selection, it would be desirable, though difficult, to obtain characteristics of CETA programs in 1979 at the prime sponsor level, attaching these as variables to the respondent's record.

*6. It would be possible to determine participation in a residential program by asking that question directly. It is not asked now.

It appears unlikely that any useful information on the other dimension at issue, local vs. central administration, can be obtained in this research.

For minimum wage policies the issues to which High School and Beyond data are potentially relevant are two: 1) Does absence of a lower minimum wage reduce job availability to youth? 2) At what wage rates would various proportions of youth take jobs? (It is argued, for example, that the adult minimum wage is below the level at which many youth would accept a job, i.e., their reservation wage. If this is so, the existence of a minimum wage has no effect on employment of such youth.)

Specific measurements relevant to minimum wage policy are:

*1. To learn the reduction of jobs for youth due to the current minimum wage, it is important to know the distribution of wages in the near region of the minimum wage. Thus BB026 categories have a cut point at $2.90. Possibility $2.00-$2.49; $2.50-$2.89; $2.90-$3.49; $3.50-$3.99.

*2. It would be valuable to have a measure giving (roughly) whether his employer is covered or not, such as number of employees. This is not currently asked.

*3. At what rates would youth accept jobs? A question to this effect is missing; it is a cheap and easy question which could be asked about two times: for work while you are still in school; and, after finishing your education.

*4. In addition, it is essential to make use of the natural experiments provided by states, and determine state levels and coverage, as variables to be added to the student record.

Military Service and National Service

a. Definition of policy area: A third set of policies relevant to post-high school activities are those concerning the opportunity for or requirement for national service or military service. This is an area in which every country with a standing army has some policy. The current policy in the United States is to have no compulsory national service, a voluntary military service, and virtually no voluntary national service other than military.

b. Specific policies and programs: The impending or existing failure of the All Volunteer Force (AVF) to recruit sufficient youth despite high pay and high youth unemployment has led to a number of proposals for reinstating the draft, or for initiating a compulsory National Service. These vary from that of a pure draft to that of a multi-option national service.

c. Arguments and issues, and information that can be provided by the study: For both a draft policy and a multi-option national service policy, one issue is simply the ideological one, which would be little affected by information from High School and Beyond. There are, however, issues that can be informed by High School and Behond. One is the level of acceptance by eligible young men (and young women, if the legislation covered them, as it might) of the draft or of compulsory national service. High School and Beyond is probably not as good an instrument for this, however, as a public opinion poll. (Polls show that the general population of 18-24 year olds in 1979 are strongly opposed to the draft (74% to 26%) and are divided (46% to 46% with 8% undecided) on national service with options including the military).

Another issue, which might be informed by High School and Beyond, is that of how youth would distribute themselves among the options with a multi-option national service. In particular, the issue is whether the military would be sufficently often chosen altogether, and sufficiently often by youth with high or average ability.

Items relevant to particular issues:

1. The recruitment potential of current policy for youth of various types can be obtained by a question now present: BB071, (one item, four versions). This is not of great use, however, because DOD obtains such information from its recruitment.

*2. A question valuable for this issue, for higher education, and for employment training policy, EB074, asks of all those who say "work": If you cannot find a job after trying for six months, what would you probably do?

*3. Recruitment potential of military in multi-option national service BB070.

Youth Employment Problems

In Chapter 3, policies and programs designed to aid youth employment were discussed. In the immediately preceding sections of this present chapter, measures necessary to provide information about effects of those policies and programs were discussed. It is also important to turn the question around, and ask more generally, what are the causes of the major problems in this area. By focusing on effects of policies, one may miss the most important causes, and be left with a distorted understanding of the phenomenon.

a. Definition of problem area: There is one central analytical problem concerning causes of youth unemployment, and a number of other analytical problems. In addition, there are several descriptive questions to which such research can contribute.

The central analytical problem is the degree to which youth unemployment lies in attributes of youth or in attributes of the market, that is, whether there are peculiarities in the supply of youth or in the market demand for them. The possibility of obtaining information on this and other questions will be discussed below.

b. Questions in which information can be provided, and how this research can do so:

*1) The central question, both concerning the overall high unemployment of youth, and concerning the differential unemployment among youth from minority and poor backgrounds vs. that among others is whether the principal causes of such unemployment lie in attributes of the youth or attributes of the occupational structure. To measure the former, we have YB020, BB022, BB023 (absences, tardiness). Perhaps the best is Teachers Comment Form 9 (two questions) from the teachers. There are other measures as well on general skills, grades in school, *reservation wage (see above). *To measure the second we should attach to the students' record measures of local unemployment rate (where possible) at time of base year survey, and at all measurement times between base year and first follow-up. Except for youth in large SMSAs, this may be possible only for 1980, the year of the decennial census. A measure of the labor market structure in labor market areas of students' residence should also be coded for all students possible.

*2) A related analytical question is how youth unemployment is affected by events in the process of moving from school to work, In particular:

*a. The pattern of intermittency and overlap between school and work, till the end of post-secondary education (first and later follow-ups: detailed work and education histories)

*b. Early full-time work experience: the frequency of terminations, the sector of industry and type of occupation (first follow-up: detailed work history) *c. The state of the labor market (and the particular sector of the labor market) at the time and place when first entering the labor force for a full-time job (data from external sources)

*3) Another important analytical question is that of distinguishing factors that affect getting various kinds of jobs and factors that affect losing them (a question with obvious implications for employment and training policy). To do this, the important measurement is that of detailed work histories on the follow-up.

*4) Another analytical question is what are the interconnections between marriage and work? For example, to what degree does steady work tend to lead to marriage? To what degree does marriage tend to lead to staying on a job longer? How do these effects differ for men and women? How do they differ for marriage and for living together?

The data implications of these questions are primarily in subsequent data collection points. They involve obtaining detailed work histories as well as timing of marital events and living arrangements that have some of the properties of marriage. Also, measurement of labor market conditions specific to time and place is important to aid in separating out the voluntary and non-voluntary components of work intermittency.

This question at first appears to be unrelated to any policy issues. However, its answers should help greatly to shed light on appropriate policies to reduce youth unemployment. For if there is a strong effect of marriage on length of tenure in a job (independent of age), then this implies that the sporadic and intermittent character of youth unemployment is in large part voluntary, and would not be reduced by policies increasing job availability. On the other hand, the absence of such an effect would suggest that such policies might be effective.

*5) Still another analytical question is how do marriage, work, and college attendance affect one another for women, and how does this differ for men?

Comparing the different relations between work, school, and marriage for women and men will show, by inference, the decisions about investment in human capital by individuals and by couples, and the differing parameters on those decisions for men and women. This may or may not be an area subject to public policy, but understanding differences in these decisions can aid in assessing whether a proposed policy, say to affect women's labor force behavior, is likely to be effective.

All data implications of this question are for follow-ups.

Among the descriptive questions related to the area of youth employment are:

*6) How are first jobs found, and what are the factors that affect how a youth finds a first job?

The obvious data implication of this question is the necessity of getting good information on how the first job was obtained in the first follow-up.

And the very general question:

*7) Through what patterns do youth make the transition from school to work, and how does the distribution of these patterns differ for different groups of youth?

This is primarily a descriptive question, which asks about the timing of movements in and out of work, and movements in and out of school, and the overlap in these two activities. We know that the process is irregular for many youths, with periods out of school followed by returns.

We also know that there is a considerable degree of overlap, and that the overlap differs for different groups (for example, it is greater for whites than blacks). But for a national sample of youth, we do not know the frequencies of these patterns, and we do not know how it varies for males and females, for youth from different economic levels, for youth in different kind of localities, and for youth with different aspirations.

The one measurement implication of this question is for the first and subsequent follow-ups: obtaining detailed occupational and educational histories.

*8.) Another descriptive question is the fraction of youth "unemployment" that is accounted for by full-time students. Although this is designated as unemployment in CPS, it is obviously less important than that for non-full-time high school students. Other research (e.g., Feldstein and Ellwood, 1979) has examined this question with CPS or DOL-NLS data, but some of the results disagree. Information on this issue can be provided by asking the CPS question about looking for work in the last week. Such an item will also aid in testing against the new DOL-NLS cohort. If the parent survey is carried out, we can ask a similar question of parents, thus replicationg roughly both the CPS and DOL-NLS method of collecting data on labor force participation.

III. Higher Education

Financing Higher Education

a. General definition of policy area: At the state and Federal levels, and in some localities, there is public support of higher education, i.e., two-year colleges and four-year colleges and universities. In these policies, there is no guiding philosophy about the locus of responsibility for costs of higher education, except that the cost should be borne in part by the student and student's family, and in part by governmental sources, the balance between these two determined by the family's ability to pay the costs.

b. Description of specific policies: Most of the public cost of higher education is borne by the states, through direct support of state colleges and universities, covering a large portion of the costs that would otherwise be covered by tuition. States have widely varying policies, however, both in the amount of support they provide, and in the way it is provided.

The public portion of support of higher education comes in several ways: through direct payments to institutions (principally, the state's support of its public colleges and universities) resulting in lowered student tuition; scholarships and other grants of aid; opportunities for partially subsidized campus jobs; and student loans. Some cities support higher education in the first of these ways, through municipal or community colleges (though states have in recent years come to take over the support of many of these). States support higher education in all of these ways. The Federal government supports higher education through grants of aid, through subsidy of college work-study, through Federally-financed loan programs, and through subsidy and guarantees of loans made by private lenders.

Federal policies for grants, work-study and loans, come through programs listed in the table below, which show some of their characteristics. There

TABLE 5.1

PRINCIPAL MEANS OF FEDERAL AID TO HIGHER EDUCATION

Name	Amount of Grant or Loan	1977 Number of Recipients in Thousands	1979 Total Budget in Millions	Student Applies to:	Other Provisions
Grants					
Basic Educational Opportunity Grant (BEOGP)	$200-$1800 depending on need	1,127	$1,936	HEW	$25,000 max family income Half-cost
Supplementary Educational Opportunity Grant (SEOGP)	to $1500 depending on need	432	$ 340	College	50/50 Institution matching
State Student Incentive Grant (SSIG)	varies		$ 77	State	Matches state grants
Veterans Benefits (GI Bill)	$292 monthly		$2,000	VA	Veterans eligible
Social Security Educational Benefits	average $1700	720	$1,505	SSA	Parents retired disabled, dead
Self-help					
College Work-Study (CWS)	varies	698	$ 550	College	20/80 Institution matching
Loans					
Guaranteed Student Loan (GSL)	to $2500	695	$ 970	Bank (College)	7% interest
National Direct Student Loan (NDSL)	to $5000 (up to BA)	757	$ 329	College	3% interest 10/90 institution matching

are some smaller programs in addition, not listed here, such as Nursing Scholarships and Loans.

c. Arguments and issues, and information that can be provided by the study: At the state and Federal levels, there is continuing controversy over the amount of government support of higher education and the form which that support takes. Interest groups representing higher education are unified on the first of these and divided on the second. The major division is between private and public institutions. The former favor student aid in the form of grants or loans, the latter favor direct institutional support of public institutions. In Federal policy, private institutions favor the "half-cost" provision of the BEOG (which limits maximum grant to half of total costs), and increasing the maximum costs on which half-cost is calculated, while public institutions oppose both these stands.

Apart from the institutional interests that lead to these positions, several arguments are made concerning the effects of these programs on student access to higher education. Some of these arguments are of the sort that can be examined, though others (such as the overall efficiency of a given method of support) can be better studied in other ways. What are needed are measures of independent variables (i.e., the characteristics of the programs themselves), measures of intermediate responses (i.e., student knowledge of and uses of particular forms of financing, anc choices among institutions with different costs), and ultimate outcomes: patterns of enrollment and interruption of education.

*1) For measures of independent variables: Probably the greatest contribution to policy in financing higher education is to use the natural experiments provided by differing state policies. Without identifying states, it is possible to attach to the students' record characteristics of the policies for financing higher education in his state. This will give variations in the independent variables that can be related to variations in response. Gathering these data from appropriate sources during the base year is essential. Dimensions of variation in state policies should include these:

a) Tuition level for in-state students at public colleges and universities;

b) Number of different two-year and four-year campuses, standardized in some way for population and area of state;

c) Total amount of state scholarship aid per graduating high school senior;

d) Restrictions on scholarship aid (public vs. private, in-state vs. out-of-state;

e) Total support for higher education per graduating high school senior;

f) Support of adult education per person.

*2) There is one omnibus question (EB121AA-EB121CC, YB114AA-YB114CC) that is designed to get at intended use of (or, among sophomores, knowledge of) student financial aid. This question requires extensive alteration, along some of the following lines: a) It confounds the agency to which the student applies with the funding agency: thus for loans, the student applies to the university or a bank; if former, it may or may not be NDSL; if latter, it may or may not be GSL. Similarly for student aid: SEOG's are administered by the college; many other programs are not. Thus we have many multiple response in this question, because of the confusion. b) It combines scholarships or grants with loans; they can be separated into two (lumping college work-study with either grants or loans). c) Perhaps most important, the senior question confounds knowledge of the program with intended use, as the analysis in Chapter 9 makes clear. A person not planning to go to college can answer either "I do not plan to use it" or "I do not know enough about this program to answer the question." Thus separating the effect of college plans on knowledge about the program from the effect of knowledge about the program on college plans (a delicate task at best) becomes impossible with this form of question. If this form is kept for the seniors, the knowledge-only question used for sophomores must be repeated as in 1982.

*3) To get at self-reported reasons for non-use of financial aid, there are BB111A, BB111B, BB111C, EB116A-EB116G.

*4) For actual college choice, the public-private and in-state out-of-state choice are obtained in BB107, BB108, BB109. This has the defect that for seniors, it is asked independently of the question about the college they will attend. There is no question asking seniors the tuition of the college they will attend after EB119; perhaps there should be. The most important implication is for future waves; in later waves, it is necessary to get a full history of enrollment in educational institutions, full- and part-time.

5) Specific arguments relative to these financial aid policies, and questions that can be used to examine them are:

i) Students from low income families are not as willing to take out loans nor as knowledgeable about applying for aid as middle class students. Questions EB121AA-EB121CC (YB114AA-YB114CC) and can be used for this in conjunction with background items, and standardizing on achievement scores, but as discussed above, these questions about use and knowledge are defective for the purpose.

ii) Removing the half-cost provision would make public institutions more attractive, especially for low-income students. EB121AA-EB121CC (YB114AA-YB114CC) have some slight use for this argument, but not great use. We know larger scholarships will increase college attendance. The questions are two: for a fixed total expenditure, will the increased attendance due to larger scholarships be greater or less than the reduced expenditure due to fewer scholarships? And, will the distribution of attendance between students from high and low income backgrounds differ with and without half-costs, and if so, how? To answer these questions well requires a social experiment involving half-cost provisions. However, the existence of state variations in student aid and tuition policy may aid in this, for they may provide natural experiments to study, if not the effect of half-cost, the effect of greater or lesser total educational costs on attendance of youth from families of different income levels.

iii) Those eligible for Social Security educational benefits would be eligible for BEOG. This is not a question to be answered by research of this sort.

iv) GSL loans are not readily available to those who need them. EB121AA-EB121CC, YB114AA-YB114CC can be used, in conjunction with background items and controlling on test scores, although nothing conclusive can be learned from them. A series of new questions would be necessary, but are probably not of sufficiently broad use to warrant inclusion.

v) Student aid discourages students from college attendance, which is not true for the other form of support, low tuition. In this case, we may use information on characteristics of state support policies as independent variables, treating states as natural experiments. For states differ in tuition levels of their public institutions, and some of those with higher levels have higher aid programs to compensate.

vi) Social Security educational benefits go primarily to needy students who could not attend college without them. This may be examined by examining college attendance rates among those whose father is deceased, retired or disabled with that of those with similar income levels but with living, non-retired or disabled fathers. BB101 for income; BB036A-BB036K must be modified if they are to be used for this purpose. Also look at sophomores over time.

vii) Grants rather than financial aid of the self-help nature (loans and College Work-Study) are better suited to encouraging college attendance. An analysis of use of the different forms of financial aid by youth in differing economic and social circumstances, using items EB121AA-EB121CC (YB114AA-YB114CC) will help answer this question also, examination of variations in college attendance among states with variations in scholarship programs will indicate effect of the latter on encouraging college attendance.

Postsecondary Educational Choice as a Problem Area

a. General definition: For youth who finish high school (as over 75% do), the question of what determines the choice of postsecondary institution, especially the role of finance, is an important one in assessing equality of access as well as for a number of other policy issues. Policies designed to provide incentives toward one or another path should be informed by knowledge of the determinants.

More generally, the determinants of college choice, limited to financial considerations, are of a great deal of interest to policies of higher education institutions themselves. These institutions can vary much about the way they make themselves known to high school students and about what they offer to prospective students.

b. Questions on which information can be provided, and how to do so:

1. The question of what his choice is at particular points prior to implementing it is given in BB071, BB072A, BB072I. This seems adequate. *In wave 2, it is essential that detailed history for seniors after June 1980 be obtained. For seniors, the choice conditional on not finding

a job would be obtained by the question proposed earlier (under the section on military service and national service).

2. Among independent variables, some characterize the student; these are probably measured reasonably well. Other characterize the school: guidance counselors SB039B; high school qualities and program SB023, SB029BC4, SB017AY-SB017DE, SB003, SB042. Still others characterize the student body as an aggregate. These will be obtained by getting school means in our sample from student questionnaire items, together with school questionnaire SB056A-SB056N and aggregates from teachers' questionnaire (Teachers Comment Form - Sophomores Students 12A, 12B, Teacher Comment Form 1, 2, 4, 8).
Others characterize the opportunities in the vicinity. One is measured in school questionnaire SB016A-SB016C (closeness to postsecondary institutions). *Others can be provided by data collected at locality level (such as the unemployment rate).

3. Specific questions:

1. Why the decline in proportion of some groups (e.g., white males) attending college? BB071, BB072A-BB072I, together with background variables, give information about college attendance: compare with 1972. One hypothesis concerns the earlier existence of draft and Vietnam liability, which no longer exists. Appropriate comparisons with 1972 can give an estimate of the amount of decline due to this.

ii. Why is the decline greater for certain persons (e.g., males) and other characteristics (e.g., regions)? (See i, and use information from state policies supporting higher education.)

*iii. What determines the choice of blacks in attending a white college or a black college? We have no way, othe than by coding the college name and coding its characteristics, of determining racial composition of the college student is planning to attend. If we do code the college name, then use of the NCHEMS data bank will give us extensive characteristics of colleges.

One hypothesis involves concerns among some black students about academic competition. This can be examined by studying the effect of test scores of blacks in leading them to attend community colleges or black colleges rather than four-year colleges or predominantly white colleges. Test scores together with BB071, BB072A-BB072I and EB119 plus control variables will allow answering this last question.

iv. What is the effect for blacks on college attendance of participation in special preparatory programs for college? BB014C, BB014D provide information about participation in Upward Bound.

*v. Why do more students defer college until later than was once true: BB065 in conjunction with BB071, BB072-BB072I and EB115, EB117 gives a measure of ultimate level of education planned, together with intentions and actions toward further education next year. Examining characteristics of students who plan college but will not go next year should give an understanding of some of the sources of this change. However, a direct question about deferral of college would be preferable. Analysis should use 1972 cohort for comparison.

vi. Some students choose to attend community colleges for technical or vocational postsecondary training; other choose private sector profit-making schools for the same training. What are the determinants of this choice? BB071, BB072F, BB072G, BB072H give a measure of intentions to attend each of these (though undoubtedly with some response error). Actual attendance depends on the first follow-up, in which detailed educational (and occupational) histories must be obtained.

*viii. Given attendance at a community college or private-sector technical school what are the comparative: a) costs of each to the individual and the public; b) employment in the occupation trained for; and c) subsequent occupational mobility? Dependent variables to study (a) should be in first follow-up, and to study (b) and (c) should be in subsequent follow-ups. To answer (a) requires also information on state support of community college vocational and technical programs. This question is a good example of a kind of question that dictates creating special panels for special analyses - in this case, a panel consisting only or principally of those who responded in the 5th or 7th category to BB071, BB072E, BB072G. Such panels can be extremely efficient for answering specific questions involving small subsets of the cohort. Questions involving post-secondary activities of the handicapped would be another example.

Besides the questions on college choice discussed above, there are a number of other problem areas for which High School and Beyond will be particularly well suited, as the cohort ages. These will concern problems of early occupational and personal adjustment, including ehe question of effects of various characteristics of secondary and postsecondary education on these outcomes. These problem areas will not be discussed here, because they are relevant to data obtained in subsequent waves.

CHAPTER SIX

PLURALISTIC USE OF POLICY RESEARCH

Introduction

Policy research remains incomplete until the information generated by the research is used. Yet much policy research remains unused, often to the mutual dismay of policy researcher and policy maker. Sometimes each blames the other, the policy researcher pointing to the indifference of the policy maker and the policy maker pointing to the researcher's disregard of time schedules and the unreadability of reports presenting research results.

Such recriminations may, however, be misplaced. For they are based on a conception of policy research that assumes a "policy maker" as the appropriate consumer of the information that policy research provides. It is, rather, those without the authority to make a decision but with an interest in its outcome, more often found outside government than within, for whom policy-relevant information can have the greatest value. For such information, if it supports their position, can greatly strengthen that position. And it is appropriate, in a pluralistic political system, that information from policy research be communicated to those interested parties. As segments of society, it is their interests, and the effects of policies on them, that constitute the legitimate grounds for a policy decision. And unless these interested parties are well informed about potential policy effects, they may press the decision in directions that benefit no one.

But just as different groups are differentially aware of and able to articulate their interests, different interest groups are differentially able to make use of information. Some organized groups have research staffs capable of analyzing research data. Others make good use of research reports prepared elsewhere. Still others have neither of these capabilities.

The different kinds of use by different groups is also influenced by different attitudes toward the kind of information provided by policy research, government statistical reports, and other types of systematic data. A sense of the negative attitudes may be seen in these paraphrased statements from interviews with representatives of interest groups, both within and outside government.

- Your outfit is one of the few that's asked about our research needs. Will we ever hear from you again or is this a gimmick to guarantee a research grant?
- Please, forget about elaborate causal connections. What our agency needs is an accurate description of what's going on inside American secondary schools today.
- Who on your Planning Committee represents and is sensitive to our needs?
- It often seems to us that the findings of government research somehow happen to support the position of the Administration.
- We are so tired of reading researchers' flow charts which leave out variables which every practitioner knows are crucial. You researchers too often talk to each other and don't listen to us.

These attitudes reflect not an indifference to the use of appropriate information from policy research, but a frustration with the inappropriateness of some existing policy research. This inappropriateness, in turn, is in part due to the perspective held by many policy researchers that policy research should provide information directly to the "policy maker."

There are, on the other hand, many uses of information made by interest groups, both internal (to their own membership or to aid their own decision-making about policy positions) and external. Some part of this use is directed toward legislators or government agencies, and some is toward the public, through the media.

The National Education Association, for example, may issue press releases concerning items from their "Rankings of The States" which compares the status of teachers and education across the states. Or, PEER (Project for Equal Education Rights), a project of the National Organization for Women's Legal Defense and Education Fund, may issue a release about their findings on sex bias in the schools. Many interest groups at the state and national level conduct what might be termed "political research," tracking the voting records of legislators and Congressmen on bills of consequence to their members and publishing this data in their own journals, as well as sending out press releases supporting and opposing candidates on the basis of their records. Or, officers of the Committee for Full Funding (of Education Programs), an association of virtually all national groups involved with education, may hold a press conference at the beginning of the "appropriations season" in Washington.

In general, organizations' views of the importance of information in influencing policy were extremely varied. Certain respondents as well as legislative aides minimized the role of information. "With legislators, I'd use data only about 15-20% of the time; i.e., it's just not as important in our success as reward/punishment techniques" (Interview # 217-1). On the other hand, there are those who believe that information is a very important tool if used wisely. "Information is much more key than other means of influence . . . some of the smallest affiliates are able to 'pack quite a wallop' when they are armed with the information and that is what the affiliates request of the central office most often" (Interview # 301-1). This is particularly true of the smaller organizations that lack resources.

> With no funds to support campaigns nor a large membership of voters, what else do I have? . . . documented evidence of the effectiveness of our programs will definitely influence decision-making in this area. In fact, more pressure can be exerted when you have scientific evidence to

> back up your demands than when you have only potential political power. (Interview # 000-1.)
>
> You know, we don't give money to candidates, we don't control many votes back in the district, or anything of that sort, so that we're not really in the position to elect or support or give a candidate money, or anything like that. So we really have to appeal to Congressmen on the merits of the issues. I think that's true for most of the senior members of the House and Senate Education Committees. These are guys who are safe in their districts and are not expected to get reelected by money they get from educators, particularly in higher education. (Interview # 228-1.)

Even those interest groups that place less importance on information do seek it and frequently present it at Congressional hearings so that it will be on record. Also, it should be pointed out that information is not used solely for external purposes, but that it is an important ingredient in the internal functioning of the organization. Members often need to be convinced of the virtues of the organization's stand. The more educated the membership, the more likely this is. Appropriate data is probably the most convincing tool. Uses of information for internal purposes is a relevant and interesting area to study in the context of pluralistic research, but it is peripheral to our major concern, which is information in policy-making. We will therefore focus the discussion on external uses of data.

As the lobbying role of associations has emerged, their informational needs have also grown. For example, in the area of higher education, representatives of the various associations have overcome the former prevailing attitude that higher education spokesmen should remain aloof of the political process. In 1972, when the Higher Education Act Amendments were passed, the higher education representatives did not play an active role because of widespread belief that Congressmen would perceive lobbying as inappropriate and that it therefore would be counterproductive (Gladieux and Wolanin, 1976, p. 199).

As a result, the higher education community was criticized for its lack of involvement in the legislative process, particularly its inability to provide information.

> Many of the legislators complained that the associations were unable to supply basic information needed to formulate intelligent policy, that they simply enunciated their position on institutional aid without adequate research and data to back it up. The toughest congressional critic was John Brademas, who charged a failure of analysis by the higher education community: "We turned to the citadels of reason. We said, 'Tell us what you need,' and they answered, 'We need $150 per student because that's what we've been able to agree on.'" One post-mortem on the role of the American Council on Education, higher education's leading voice in Washington, criticized its tendency to "rely on vague statements of opinion from an elite group of distinguished educators rather than hard-headed sophisticated analyses and data." (Gladieux and Wolanin, 1976, p. 242).

Since 1972 the higher education associations have assumed a more active role in the area of influencing the political process. The former apolitical and antipolitical attitudes have been shed in favor of more vigorous congressional relations, in the form of a more visible and routine presence on Capitol Hill. In order to do this effectively, the associations have been trying to provide better data.

> And they began to emphasize policy-related research. Changes were made to enhance both the political savvy and policy research capability of the associations, with the hope that they might be better prepared for the next legislative round in Congress. (Gladieux and Wolanin, 1976, p. 242)

As this quote demonstrates, the political aspirations and policy research needs of higher education interest groups have increased concurrently. In the area of secondary education too, congressional staff mentioned the much greater usefulness to decision-makers of very specific data concerning how a program due for re-authorization is working, exactly what is right and what wrong with it, and specifically, how can modified legislation improve it. According to staff, witnesses are often invited to testify at hearings due to their expertise in running an actual program out in the states, and that their recommendations concerning the details of programs tends to carry much more weight with many lawmakers than the general policy principles of interest groups often presented at public hearings.

Along with the increased use made of policy research by interest groups, it has been pointed out in our interviews that policy makers and their aides have become much more sophisticated in their use and analysis of information. In many cases they have their own sources of information, such as Congressional Budget Office reports, and interest groups must follow and keep up with this trend if they want to have an impact on policy. Organizations are often asked by legislative aides for specific information concerning their area of interest or they are asked by a Congressman to present an informed comment on an issue currently being debated. Finally, and most importantly, an organization testifying before a Congressional subcommittee and arguing for or against a certain policy must support its position with appropriate data.

In many cases informational needs are not met. One type of information used most frequently is published governmental data that was collected in the first place for the administration's purposes. Most often this includes financial information - expenditures or costs - or macro-indicators as reported by the Bureau of the Census. For instance, during the Hearings on Tax Treatment of Tuition Expenses before the House Committee on Ways and Means, the representative of the National Association of Independent Schools wanted to stress the fact that his association does not necessarily represent the wealthy segment of the nation. Census data showing that in 1974 more than 50% of children attending private schools in the country came from families with annual incomes of less than $15,000 seemed appropriate.

But in other instances the use of such data may not be appropriate, particularly where policies are being considered and the possible outcomes of the policies are being debated. In this regard another source of information is utilized extensively. Organizations make secondary use of academic and other research which touches upon policy issues. In an interview with the Illinois Manufacturers Association, their representative justified the organization's objection to increasing state minimum wages for youth in Illinois by referring to the work of Walter Williams (1977), which points to the relationship of minimum wage and unemployment. He ignored or was unacquainted with other work which disagrees with this view - work presented in Congress by opponents of a subminimum wage for youth.

Despite such uses, secondary interpretation of published data is not always useful and at times is misleading, since the specific issue for which an organization seeks supportive information is often not addressed by the research. A representative of the National Urban Coalition pointed this out, saying that complete reports done by government agencies or academics are not always appropriate for their needs and that they would prefer the "raw data" so that they can do their own analysis.

This brings us to a third source - their organization's own information. Often in testimony representatives of interest groups present firsthand information. They may relate an anecdote, or present figures on a certain district, etc.

> In addition, with the lobbyists and the Administration on the sidelines, when the conferees did focus on an issue, they frequently did not have the information needed to make well-informed decisions. The members were frequently thrown back on their personal experience and prejudices or the situations in their home state . . . . during the discussions of the Guaranteed Loan Program, Congressman Quie cited the case of a student in Minnesota who admitted to the Congressman that he had used his guaranteed loan to buy a red Corvette. Quie's view of the program was shaped by this example, which he recounted several times in the conference, and he was one of the prime movers behind the adoption of a needs test for this program. (Gladieux and Wolanin, p. 198)

While personal experiences are a legitimate source of one type of information, it is hardly appropriate that national, state, or even local policies be created on the basis of such incidental information. Yet in the absence of systematic information on a topic, such examples are influential.

Aware of the shortcomings of the previously-described sources of information, organizations have been doing their own research with the specific intention of providing information for the organization to arrive at policy positions (or supporting existing ones) and influencing decision-making.

It is clear that the elaboration of interest group structure in education, and the sophistication of those groups that are part of this structure, is leading to increased demand for systematic information of the sort provided by policy research. Yet gaps remain, one of the most important being the inability or inexperience of many groups in carrying out analyses of data from original sources. Data of this sort are increasingly available, in "public use tapes" from the Census Bureau, the National Center for Education Statistics, and other sources. In addition, although many interest groups are unaware of the fact, all data from which analysis is done and reports prepared, whether by government agencies, private research firms, or universities, are in the public domain, so long as Federal funds were used for data collection.

For groups without access to analytical facilities, such as a computer, there will be coming into existence central data bases containing original research data which can be accessed from terminals in any location. The data from High School and Beyond, together with that from the 1972 National Longitudinal Study of High School Seniors, may in the future be available on such a data base for dispersed uses, as well as through public use tapes.

Such increasing availability of data from policy research will help speed its use by interest groups. To further aid in encouraging this use, the following three chapters present examples of use of data from the 1972 high school senior cohort to examine three specific policy questions. These analyses are arbitrarily limited to simple cross-tabulations, in order that the illustrations be widely accessible. It should be pointed out, however, that in conflicts over social policy that make use of policy research (as for example, recent conflicts concerning the effects of school desegregation on white flight from central cities), the forms of analysis escalate in sophistication, rivalling any "purely academic" analyses. We have chosen not to exemplify such escalated analytical sophistication because our aim is not to resolve the policy issues used as examples, but to give a glimpse of the way research data may be used to provide information about them.

CHAPTER SEVEN

MINIMUM COMPETENCY TESTING

Analysis of this issue using the 1972 NLS data attempts to demonstrate how multi-purpose policy research may be used to shed light on a policy debate which emerges after the data have been collected. While the 1972 National Longitudinal Study was not designed to address minimum competency testing, a policy issue which had not yet arisen, it can nevertheless have some use for that purpose. Parties supporting the competency-based movement could use parts of the data to illustrate some of the factors which existed during the period the study was undertaken to bolster their arguments for a need for greater concentration in the basic skills and for greater accountability from students and the educational structure. Similarly, parties concerned with the potential negative effects of such tests could use sections of the information gathered to support their arguments opposing tests as a criterion for graduation.[1]

The analysis presented here examines secondary and post-secondary data relevant to a discussion of minimum competency tests. Items from the Base Year (1972), the First Follow-Up (1973) and the Third Follow-Up (1976) will be used.

First, information relevant to arguments made by opponents of minimum competency tests is introduced, followed by information relevant to the arguments of supporters. Before beginning the analysis, an explanation of tests used in the 1972 study is given.

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[1] Indeed, the 1972 data have been used in testimony before a court hearing a challenge to minimum competency tests in at least one state. We are grateful to Dr. Bruce Eckland, University of North Carolina, for bringing his use of the 1972 data in court testimony to our attention.

1972 NLS Tests

A test battery consisting of six parts was administered to the sample of high school seniors as part of the 1972 Base Year study, in addition to the student questionnaires. While there is wide variation across the states in the basic skills included in minimum competency tests, the majority test for reading comprehension and/or mathematics. Two of the six sections in the 1972 National Longitudinal Study were tests of reading and mathematics,[1] and it is these two tests which are used in the analysis as surrogates for actual minimum competency tests.

It is necessary to define the cut-off point below which students would be denied a high school diploma. Both sides to the debate around minimum competency tests (MCT) would probably agree that students with scores in the lowest 10% on these tests during the 1972 study would also be those most likely to fail MCT.[2]

Information Relevant to Arguments of Opponents of Minimum Competency Testing

The National Education Association opposes standardized tests on grounds that they are biased and do not accurately measure achievement, yet are increasingly used as tools in employment and education. The NAACP opposes standardized tests which discriminate against minorities and any use of minimum competency tests which place all the responsibility for achievement on students, rather than on teachers and schools. Wherever such tests are used as a basis for withholding the high school diploma, thus blocking students' higher educational and other plans, they are opposed by NAACP.

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[1] The 15 item reading test and the 25 item mathematics test consumed 15 minutes each. On the math test, " . . . most of the items involved computations but omitted those that tap algebraic, geometric, or other higher level skills . . . some of the items on the math test dealt with applied skills, such as the use of monetary figures, temperature reading, and measuring in feet and inches . . . the math test no doubt includes items that would be likely to be found in almost any minimum competency exam at this grade level" (Eckland, forthcoming).

[2] The deciles are not at exactly ten percent intervals, because of score discontinuities produced by the limited number of items. Since the analysis focuses almost exclusively on the lowest decile on each test (9.6% form the lowest decile on the reading test; 9.1% form the lowest decile on the mathematics test), this difficulty should not greatly affect the analysis.

Information from the 1972 NLS is applied in this analysis to examine the racial and ethnic composition of the group most likely to fail minimum competency tests (i.e., the lowest decile). Because the study provides longitudinal data, it is also possible to examine actual performance in higher educational institutions and educational attainment four years after high school graduation for the lowest decile, drawing inferences regarding the consequences of withholding the high school diploma from this group.

Minority composition of lowest deciles on reading and math tests: One of the arguments of many of the opponents of MCT is that it discriminates against racial and ethnic minorities, denying them a high school diploma. Table 1 shows that, holding aside the question of "discrimination," racial and ethnic minorities would disproportionately fail the test. There are large differences between students from different racial or ethnic backgrounds on both tests. For example, only 5.7% of whites fall into the lowest decile on the reading test, while 24.8% of black students fall into the lowest 10%. On the math test, the percentages are 5.2% of whites and 26.0% of blacks. Minority students, these tables suggest, would disproportionately fail MCT if the lowest decile were the cutting point for passing. In fact, this prediction from the 1972 data is borne out by the experience of the Florida MCT, where blacks have failed MCT in numbers disproportionate to their representation in the population. This differential failure rate is, according to the opponents of MCT, discriminatory by withholding from minorities high school graduation. Supporters of the tests acknowledge the differential failure rate, but argue that a high school student who cannot

TABLE 7.1

PERCENT OF EACH RACIAL OR ETHNIC GROUP IN LOWEST DECILE IN READING AND MATHEMATICS TESTS

Racial/Ethnic Group	Percent of Group in Lowest Decile		N
	Reading	Mathematics	
American Indian	21.0%	18.2%	181
Black	24.8	26.0	1,906
Chicano	23.4	21.2	500
Puerto Rican	21.3	26.3	80
Other Latin American	20.4	15.7	108
Oriental	7.9	2.2	178
White	5.7	5.2	12,111
Other	20.4	17.8	461
Total sample ...	9.4%	8.9%	15,525

TABLE 7.2

RACIAL AND ETHNIC COMPOSITION OF LOWEST DECILE ON MATHEMATICS TESTS

Racial/Ethnic Group	Percentage of Lowest Decile	Percentage of Entire Sample
American Indian	2.4%	1.2%
Black	35.7	12.3
Chicano	7.6	3.2
Puerto Rican	1.5	0.5
Other Latin American	1.2	0.7
Oriental	0.3	1.1
White	45.3	78.0
Other	5.9	3.0
Total	99.9%	100.0%
N	1,387	15,525

meet certain standards of literacy and arithmetic skill, should not be graduated from high school.

A second point related to the differential failure rate is made by opponents. When separate remedial classes are provided to prepare students who have failed for re-testing, these remedial classes may be disproportionately composed of minority students. Even in integrated schools, "resegregation" may occur in these classes. Table 2 shows the racial and ethnic composition of the lowest decile on the mathematics test. Such "resegregation" would occur not through the intention of school authorities, but as a result of the required competency test.

If we look at the lowest decile on the mathematics test only for students from "high" SES background, the proportion of black students falling within the lowest decile is reduced from 26.0% to 10.7%. While other controls might be introduced to further reduce the disparity, the point opponents of MCT would make is that the testing does not take such variables into account, penalizing students who fail for the inputs they bring to schools due to external societal conditions.

Attendance and performance in college for students from lowest decile: One of the arguments of those who oppose minimum competency testing is that failure of the test, and consequent failure to graduate, cuts off certain post-secondary options, options in which the students who fail the test might well succeed.

During October of 1973, one year after high school graduation, the First Follow-Up to the 1972 NLS included a question asking respondents if they were attending a two-or four-year college. Table 3 presents responses of black and white students from the lowest decile on the reading test, showing that 18.6%

TABLE 7.3

PERCENT BLACK AND WHITE STUDENTS FROM THE LOWEST DECILE ON THE READING TEST WHO WERE TAKING ACADEMIC COURSES ONE YEAR AFTER GRADUATION

	Race		Total
	Black	White	
Percent taking academic courses ...	18.6%	11.1%	14.3%
N	382	553	1,157

TABLE 7.4

GRADES REPORTED BY STUDENTS FROM LOWEST DECILE ON READING TEST DURING YEAR AFTER GRADUATION WHO WERE TAKING ACADEMIC COURSES IN OCTOBER, 1973

Grades	Percent
Mostly A	2.9%
Half A and half B	7.2
Mostly B	17.3
Half B and half C	35.3
Mostly C	30.2
Half C and half D	6.5
Mostly D	0.7
Mostly below D	0.0
Total	100.0%
N	139

of low-scoring blacks were taking academic courses, compared with only 11.1% of whites, and a total of 14.3% for the lowest decile in the cohort as a whole: had a high school diploma been withheld from these students on the basis of a test similar to this one, they would have been denied this access to higher education.

Also during the First Follow-Up, respondents were asked to report the grades they had received in any courses or additional training the year after high school. Table 4 shows the past year's grades reported by students from the lowest decile on the reading test who were taking academic courses in October of 1973. This table shows that the majority of students were performing adequately in post-secondary courses, despite low performance on the reading test in high school.

These data do indicate that some students who would have failed the test go on successfully in college. The question is whether this is a greater number than those who are not successful in college because the schools failed to equip them with basic skills. Examinations of this balance can obviously not be done with the 1972 NLS, or with other comparable research.

Opponents of MCT argue that such data show the unreliability of standardized tests, and that use of the tests to withhold the high school diploma means that some students, capable of doing college work, are precluded from education beyond high school. Supporters of MCT would argue that these data merely show the low standards in some colleges, not the adequate performance of the students, and that neither the students nor the society are served by allowing progression through higher education to youth without minimal competence in basic skills.

Educational attainment of students from low decile: Table 5 shows the highest level of education attained four years after high school graduation (October, 1976) by students who fell into the lowest decile on the reading test in high

TABLE 7.5

HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION ATTAINED BY STUDENTS FROM LOW DECILE ON READING TEST IN HIGH SCHOOL, FOUR YEARS AFTER GRADUATION (OCTOBER, 1976)

Level of Education	Percent Students
High school only	68.7%
Less than 2 years vocational, trade, or business school	11.6
2 or more years of vocational, trade, or business school	3.3
Less than 2 years of college	9.0
2 or more years of college (Including 2 year degree program)	6.2
Finished college	1.3
Total	100.1%

school, using information gathered during the Third Follow-Up of the 1972 cohort. Table 5 shows that 16.5% of these students had received some college training, a pattern of accomplishment that could hardly have occurred if these students had been denied a high school diploma due to low performance on a test in high school. Nevertheless, it is not clear just what this result shows. Supporters of MCT would deny that this means accomplishment, and argue that these students were first misled by their elementary and secondary schools which allowed them to progress without minimal skills, and now (unless this "some college" included remedial work), are being misled by colleges.

Information Relevant to Arguments of Supporters of Minimum Competency Tests

Parents, taxpayers, employers and others have argued that schools are not requiring enough of students, and schools need to be made accountable for the outputs they produce. "Social promotions" and "automatic diplomas," from this perspective, have too often produced high school graduates who are functionally illiterate, creating difficulty for these students themselves as well as the sectors of society which are the recipients of the outputs of the educational system (the military, employers, higher education). The Education Commission of the States notes that a promising use of minimum competency testing is that early identification of low achievers may permit remediation to take place before graduation.

Information from the 1972 NLS is used in this section of the analysis to examine these contentions.

School requirements and student achievement: Supporters of MCT contend that students fail to attain minimum competency because schools fail to demand minimum competency. The 1972 NLS had no measurement of the level of achievement demanded; indeed, such measurement could hardly be obtained. However, during their senior year in high school, as part of the student questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate how much time they spent on homework. One possible response to this question was that no homework was assigned. Although this question is only indirect evidence on the assignment of homework, it can serve as a proxy for the demand imposed by the school.

Table 6 shows for those students who, by omission, imply in their response that homework is assigned, and those who explicitly responded that none was assigned, the percent falling into each achievement quintile, from high to low. The results confirm the arguments of MCT supporters. The differences are very great: only about a third as many students who report no homework assigned fall into the top quintile as do those who have homework assigned; and almost twice as many fall into the lowest quintile. If we continue to think of the lowest decile as equivalent to those who would fail MCT, the table shows that the school's failure to assign homework results in a doubling of the failure rate on MCT.

However, this confirmation of the supporters' argument does not offer an instant solution to the lack of acquisition of basic skills. Further calculations from the data shown in Table 6 would show that only a small fraction of students (4.8%) report no homework assigned. From these data, only about 10% of those in the lowest decile report no homework assigned. Consequently, these data do not indicate that assignment of homework, or by extension, merely increasing demands, will eliminate failure to pass minimum competency tests.

While some groups representing racial and ethnic minorities oppose MCT, others support it as a means to hold schools accountable for student achievement. They contend that one important reason disadvantaged children achieve poorly is that teachers and schools expect them to do poorly.

This same "no homework assigned" response can be used to give some evidence (though rather indirect) about this argument. If students are classified according to socioeconomic background, Table 7 indicates that the argument is

TABLE 7.6

PERCENT IN EACH QUINTILE ON THE READING TEST AMONG STUDENTS REPORTING HOMEWORK ASSIGNED AND THOSE REPORTING NO HOMEWORK ASSIGNED

Quintile		Homework Assigned	No Homework Assigned
High	5	26.4%	9.5%
	4	16.7	11.9
	3	17.4	17.2
	2	20.4	24.7
Low	1	19.1	36.7
	N	15,014	749
	Lowest decile ..	8.9%	20.3%

TABLE 7.7

PERCENT OF STUDENTS FROM LOW, MEDIUM, AND HIGH SOCIOECONOMIC BACKGROUNDS REPORTING NO HOMEWORK ASSIGNED

	Socioeconomic Status		
	Low	Medium	High
No homework assigned	6.0%	4.9%	2.9%
N	4,502	7,519	3,688

supported: twice as high a percentage of low SES students report no homework assigned as do high SES students.

"Automatic diplomas:" Employers, the military, and others dissatisfied with the outputs of the educational system argue that high school diplomas are given independent of achievement. Data from the 1972 NLS appear to support this argument. The data show that 97.5% of students in the lowest decile on the reading achievement test graduated from high school (data are taken from a question asked in the First Follow-Up).

At the same time, this evidence is very weak. Questionnaires were administered in the spring of the senior year. Most students in this age cohort who had poor reading skills and could expect not to graduate would have dropped out before the spring of their senior year. The schools might be blamed for failing to hold them and increase their basic skills; but data from the 1972 NLS cannot be used as strong evidence that the schools are giving automatic diplomas.[1]

Remediation and improved performance: Supporters of minimum competency testing argue that the problem is schools' failure to concentrate on basic skills. They would contend that more concentration on the basic skills in secondary schools improves performance. Some evidence exists relevant to this contention. Of the 1972 seniors, 7.4% reported having received remedial instruction in reading during their senior year in high school. Remedial instruction in reading constitutes concentration on a basic skill, and Table 8 examines what effect remedial instruction in reading during the senior year in high school has on grades received in coursework or training during the first year after graduation. The table includes only those students who had scored on the lowest decile on

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[1] Use of the sophomore cohort in the 1980 study will allow a much better test of this contention.

TABLE 7.8

PERCENT OF STUDENTS FROM LOWEST DECILE ON READING TEST REPORTING POSTSECONDARY GRADES RECEIVED DURING FIRST YEAR AFTER HIGH SCHOOL, BY REMEDIAL INSTRUCTION IN READING DURING SENIOR YEAR IN HIGH SCHOOL

Postsecondary Grades	Remedial Instruction in Reading	
	No	Yes
Mostly A and Half A and half B	17.8%	24.0%
Mostly B and Half B and half C	50.4	42.7
Mostly C or below	31.9	33.4
Total	100.1%	100.1%
N	304	75

the reading test as seniors in high school.

Presumably, students who received remedial instruction in high school were those who demonstrated the greatest need for additional assistance in reading comprehension, and may thus well be students of lowest ability. While the numbers in this table are small, there is some evidence that remedial work in a basic skill in high school improved postsecondary performance: 24% of students who received remediation achieve the higher grades, compared with about 18% of students who did not receive remediation.

This discussion has attempted to illustrate how some of the data available from the 1972 NLS can be used to provide evidence relevant to the arguments of parties on both sides of the debate around minimum competency tests. The analysis has focussed on education and educational outcomes for the class of 1972, but there are other additional outcomes that could be examined as well, such as occupation and income.

CHAPTER 8

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

As mentioned earlier, there is general agreement among interest groups concerning the centrality of the "school to work" problem. At the same time one finds groups emphasizing different policies as means of facilitating this process. One such policy is that of vocational education. Even with regard to this policy most interest groups do not favor or oppose the program as a whole. As is evident in Part I, interest groups argue in very narrow and specific terms about elements of these programs, often in an attempt to amend the bill in a way that will benefit the group.

The variety of arguments presented concerning vocational education and the fact that they are relatively specific arguments makes it possible to examine some of these statements by use of the National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972. The information was obtained in the spring of 1972 of a national probability sample of high school seniors. Three follow-ups of this cohort took place in 1973, 1974, and 1976. Therefore, for most of the participants, there exists information on high school experience, plans and expectations for the future, and actual states of being in later years in terms of education, work, family life and a variety of other areas. This data set is particularly suitable for discussing statements in the area of vocational education, because many items relating to this issue were included in the questionnaires. It is therefore possible to relate the data gathered to the arguments presented by various interest groups, and learn the extent to which these statements are supported.

Proponents of vocational education see the program as an answer to the problem of transition to work. They believe that a vocational student is more prepared, more knowledgeable about the world of work and thus more attractive to potential employers than a student from other curricula. This general argument is further broken down into more specific statements in propositions put forward by such organizations as the American Vocational Association, the National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education, and the vocational clubs. First, it is often argued that vocational education provides students with a skill and therefore graduates will be more productive employees. This will be reflected in higher wages for vocational education graduates as compared to students of other programs. Second, it is suggested that vocational education graduates are more likely to become self-employed. Thus they will be the basis of entrepreneurship in the United States, employing others and increasing the number of jobs in the society. Third, it is argued that participants in vocational education are able to obtain jobs faster than others and experience fewer and shorter unemployment periods. Fourth, proponents claim that the demand for vocational education is greater than the supply and that only a third of public secondary school students have access to vocational education programs, while 50% of the student body would benefit from it. Another point emphasized particularly by the vocational education clubs is that participants in these clubs are more likely to stay in school, are more disciplined and tend to be more active citizens once they leave school. Other points that are raised concern funding of the programs and the role of local, state, and Federal authorities with regard to this.

A number of interest groups have presented arguments which are critical of vocational education. Legislators have often questioned the relevance of training for work since, they claim, only a small proportion of the students are employed in occupations for which they were trained. It is also frequently argued that vocational education students are less likely to have proper preparation for college if they are interested in enrolling upon completion of high school. Vocational education, then, tracks individuals at an early stage of life into an education pattern that limits their future choice of occupation. Finally, vocational education is frequently criticized for discriminatory practices with regard to placing females, minorities and handicapped in courses. Also, in certain schools subgroups of the student body are more likely to be placed into vocational education as a lower status educational stratum, and within vocational education, females, minorities and handicapped are overrepresented in certain types of courses usually the less promising ones for career development. The argument of sex stereotyping is also part of this broader issue of discrimination.

Many of the statements presented by both sides of the issue lend themselves to analysis by use of the 1972 NLS, but only a limited number will be discussed here, since the objective is to describe some uses of the data rather than to arrive at a judgment with regard to vocational education.

The following section, then, is an example of the use to which the NLS data may be put in the policy arena. Proceeding in much the way which one would expect information-conscious interest groups to proceed, specific arguments evolving from the public debate are operationally defined, and available data are analyzed in an attempt to learn whether

The following section, then, is an example of the use to which the NLS data may be put in the policy arena. Proceeding in much the way which one would expect information-conscious interest groups to proceed, specific arguments evolving from the public debate are operationally defined, and available data analyzed in an attempt to learn whether they support or refute the position. We retrict ourselves to the simplest statistical tools. Although more sophisticated techniques would allow more powerful analysis, the tabulations presented here lend themselves to the present goals. These goals are to give a sense of the relation between argument and data, and to see how data of the sort gathered in High School and Beyond can support or weaken a policy position.

Vocational Education and Individual Income

The proponents of vocational education often emphasize that graduates of vocational education have an advantage in the marketplace. The argument is that because of the special training the graduates become more productive workers and this is translated into higher income levels. In testimony before the House Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education in March 1979, the American Vocational Association claimed that vocational graduates outearn other students. The 1972 NLS was referred to as one source of this information though no concerete data were presented. In addition, two studies, one in Massachusetts and the other in Ohio, were cited as sources of evidence that vocational education graduates earn more than nonvocational students. When these data were cited, very little information was provided about classification of students by program, how long after graduation income was measured or whether controls were used in order to rule out other effects. In addition, annual income was reported which in some cases poses problems as will presently be discussed.

The data from the 1972 NLS provide two measures of enrollment in high school programs. One is based on the Student's school Record Information and the other on self-reporting by students. All analyses were done using both classifications. Although the results differ slightly, the direction of the results is the same. For our purposes here the program classification as derived from the Student's School Record Information will be used since it is likely to fit more closely the official description of the various programs.

Table 8.1 presents the distribution of students in the different programs. In most of the analysis we will group all vocational programs

TABLE 8.1*

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS AMONG HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS IN THEIR SENIOR YEAR

High School Program	Number of Students	Relative Proportion
General	939,122	31.3%
Academic.	1,320,842	44.1
Vocational - Agriculture.	39,995	1.3
Vocational - Business, commerical . .	347,528	11.6
Vocational - Distributive education .	54,872	1.8
Vocational - Health occupations. . . .	12,982	0.5
Vocational - Home economics	33,872	1.1
Vocational - Trade, industrial. . . .	249,615	8.3
Total	3,043,598	100.0

*Population weights have been applied in this chapter, in contrast to analysis of Chapters 7 and 9. Consequently the "total" indicated in each column of each table is not the number of cases tabulated, but the estimate of the total in that column in the population as a whole.

into one category accounting for 24.6% of the student body. Table 8.2 and Table 8.3 include information on weekly earnings and hours worked per week for those who answered yes to the question: "Did you hold a job of any king during the first week of October 1973?" The first thing that should be pointed out is that the number of missing cases was large; caution should be used therefore when interpreting the figures. In some part this is due to the fact that a large proportion of the 1972 cohort was in higher education in 1973 and many were not working.

Table 8.2 shows that vocational education graduates who are employed have higher weekly earnings than do graduates of other programs one year after leaving high school ($124.54 as compared to $116.07 for graduates of the general program and $83.03 for graduates of the academic program). This seems consistent with arguments earlier attributed to proponents of vocational education. But is is also evident from Table 8.2 that differences in weekly earnings decreased by 1976--four years after leaving high school. Furthermore, the data in Table 8.3 suggest that weekly, monthly, or annual earnings as such are probably not the best measures for comparing income of graduates, particularly in the early years of labor force participation, because there are large differences in the number of hours worked per week among those who are working. For example, among those who are working, while it is true that graduates of the academic program have lower weekly earnings than any of the other graduates, they also work less. In 1973 the differential was approximately 10 hours per week: graudates of the academic program worked an average of 29.2 hours per week as compared to 37.5 hours for graduates of general studies and 38.7 for graduates of of vocational education. The differential decreased to approximately four hours by 1976.

TABLE 8.2

AVERAGE AMOUNT EARNED DURING THE FIRST WEEK OF OCTOBER 1973 AND OCTOBER 1976 FOR GRADUATES OF DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

High School Program	Earnings Per Week (Dollars)	
	1973	1976
All	105.79	165.28
General	116.07	169.67
Academic	83.03	158.09
Vocational	124.54	172.55

TABLE 8.3

AVERAGE HOURS WORKED DURING THE FIRST WEEK OF OCTOBER 1973 AND OCTOBER 1976 BY GRADUATES OF DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

High School Program	Hours Worked Per Week	
	1973	1976
All	34.8	38.4
General	37.5	39.7
Academic	29.2	36.6
Vocational	338.7	40.0

Table 8.4A shows the hourly earnings in 1974 and 1976. Two things are of importance here. First, in 1976, graduates of general programs have essentially the same hourly wages as do graduates of vocational education. Second is the fact that graduates of the academic program earned the highest hourly wage in 1976 ($4.39) whereas they earned the lowest hourly wage ($2.92) in 1973. Since they are the ones more likely to go to college (this will be elaborated in a later section), their "investment" in higher education has resulted in higher hourly wages at a later date. Even if we limit the observation to those students who do not go on to postsecondary education, we find that hourly wages for gradutes of academic and general education are higher than those of vocational graduates in 1976 (not presented in these tables), a reverse of the relationship found in 1973. One's conclusions about the relationship between the educational program in high school and earnings differ, then, depending on whether one is interested in total or hourly earnings and on how soon after high school the earnings in question are.

TABLE 8.4A

AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS DURING THE FIRST WEEK OF OCTOBER 1973 AND OCTOBER 1976 FOR GRADUATES OF DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

High School Programs	Average Hourly Earnings (Dollars)	
	1973	1976
All	3.18	4.32
General	3.26	4.26
Academic	2.92	4.39
Vocational	3.44	4.24

It may be argued that we might not be studying the effects of participation in various educational programs, but rather analyzing the effect of students' ability, which selected them into the program in the first place. Ability might be related to both high school program and later earnings. It is, therefore, necessary to control for students' ability, and we did that in a number of ways,'first using high school grades as reported by student. This measure may be inappropriate due to school variations, so we also used the scaled vocabulary score and the mathematics scaled test score. The students were divided into two groups: those with scores above the median and those with scores below the median. The analysis of income by high school program in each of the ability categories shows the results to be in line with the previous findings that four years after leaving high school graduates of academic programs earn more per hour whether their academic ability is high or low (Table 8.4B). What is also of interest in this table is the fact that ability as measured on these standardized tests shows only a slight relation to hourly earnings.

TABLE 8.4B

AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS IN 1976 BY HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM AND STUDENT ABILITY

High School Program	High Ability Vocabulary	Low Ability Vocabulary	High Ability Mathematics	Low Ability Mathematics
General program . . .	4.27	4.26	4.31	4.25
Academic program . . .	4.31	4.58	4.41	4.30
Vocational program . . .	4.31	4.15	4.28	4.17

At this point proponents of vocational education may concede the fact that postsecondary education increases the earnings of youth, and the argument may be modified to say that for those who do not receive education beyond high school vocational programs insure higher earnings than those of graduates from other programs. This argument is not, however, supported by the data. We find similar differences for those not continuing after high school as for the total population. Whereas hourly wages are slightly higher for graduates of vocational and general programs in 1973 (even when controlling for vocabulary and mathematics test scores), the order is changed by 1976, reflecting either similar or higher wages for academic graduates. Thus, the data lend no support to an argument that for those completing their education at the high school level, training in vocational education results in higher average income per hour.

Finally, sex and race were also taken into account since we know they are important factors in determining both enrollment in high school program and income. From Table 8.5 we see that for most race and sex categories, graduates of vocational training had a higher hourly wage in 1973 than did graduates of the academic program. In 1976 (Table 8.6) the pattern differs for males and females. Male graduates of vocational programs--nonwhite and white alike--reported higher hourly wages than did their peers. This is not true of females where highest hourly wages are reported by students that were in academic programs. These data lend some support to the statement that graduates of vocational programs receive higher wages when they enter the labor force, but only for males. The relative earnings position of graduates from different programs seems

TABLE 8.5

WEEKLY EARNINGS DURING THE FIRST WEEK OF OCTOBER 1973 OF MALE AND FEMALES, NONWHITE AND WHITE, GRADUATES OF DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Dollars)

High School Program	Male		Female	
	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White
All	3.32	3.33	3.11	3.03
General	3.07	3.39	3.03	3.25
Academic	2.73	3.09	3.73	2.69
Vocational	4.24	3.62	2.68	3.28

TABLE 8.6

HOURLY EARNINGS DURING THE FIRST WEEK OF OCTOBER 1976, OF MALES AND FEMALES, NONWHITE AND WHITE, GRADUATES OF DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Dollars)

High School Program	Male		Female	
	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White
All	4.49	4.69	3.99	3.81
General	4.54	4.67	3.85	3.59
Academic	4.22	4.66	4.62	4.06
Vocational	4.67	4.78	3.54	3.52

to depend more on sex variations than on those of race. But here we encounter one of the limitations of an analysis restricted to crosstabulations. First it is difficult to utilize additional variables though we know that other variables possibly correlated with programs, such as family background, amount of previous work experience, and so forth are related to earning ability. We do not control for the effect of such variables. More sophisticated techniques would thus be required in order to arrive at definitive answers.

Vocational Education and Class of Employment

It is often argued that vocational education students are important to the basis of entrepreneurship in the United States and thus vocational education will contribute not only to the individual participants but also to society as a whole. "There are innumerable individual cases of vocational program graduates beginning their own business and creating jobs for others."[1] To support this statement the AVA gives an example of Fashion Institute of Technology in New York City where many graduates have started their own businesses. The 1972 NLS data affords a more comprehensive examination of this statement. The same classification of high school program as presented earlier will be used here. The information about class of employment is provided by answers to the question: [In the job you held during the first week of October] were you:

> An employee of a PRIVATE company, business or individual working for wages, salary or commissions?
>
> A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county or local)?

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[1] Dr. Gene Bottoms, Executive Director of the American Vocational Association in testimony before the House Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education, March 1, 1979.

Seff-employed in your OWN business, professional practice or farm?

Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?

The same question was repeated in 1973, 1974, and 1976.

Table 8.7 and Table 8.8 examine the distribution of graduates of the three high school programs--general, academic and vocational-among the classes of employment. We examine the distribution only for 1974 and 1976 assuming that it would be quite difficult to be self-employed within four months (October 1973) of the end of the school year. Even in later years we find that the proportion of the self-employed out of the total employed is extremely small: 1.3% in 1974 and 2.8% in 1976. These figures can be compared with the national figures for workers 16 years and older which were 8.6% and 8.2% for 1974 and 1976, respectively. Tenure in the labor force is evidently important.

TABLE 8.7

CLASS OF EMPLOYMENT IN 1974 FOR GRADUATES OF DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

	High School Program		
Class of Employment	General	Academic	Vocational
Private business	79.7	79.6	83.1
Government	18.1	19.2	14.6
Self-employed	1.8	0.8	1.9
Non-paid worker	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(623,400)	(761,232)	(533,268)

TABLE 8.8

CLASS OF EMPLOYMENT IN 1976 FOR GRADUATES OF DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

Class of Employment	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Private business	82.3	79.6	77.0
Gevernment	14.8	17.8	18.4
Self-employed	2.9	2.0	4.0
Non-paid worker	0.0	0.6	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(671,692)	(957,508)	(542,360)

Comparing now the graduates of the different education programs we find that in 1974 the graduates of the general program and the vocational gradutes are more likely to be self-employed than are the academic graduates (1.9% and 1.8% as compared with 0.8%). In 1976 the pattern changes slightly, with 4.0% of the vocational graduates self-employed in comparison to 2.9% and 2.0% among graduates of the general and academic program, respectively.

This pattern holds true when we limit the analysis to full-time workers as well. In 1974, 2.1% of the vocational graduates working full time (defined as working 35 hours a week or more) were self-employed, as compared to 1.8% of the graduates from general programs and 9.5% of the academic graduates. In 1976 the figures were 3.3% for vocational graduates and 1.9% and 1.6% for graduates of general and academic programs, respectively. Similar results are obtained for youth who did not have any postsecondary education by 1976. Four percent of graduates of vocational programs were self-employed, only 1.8% of the graduates of general programs and none of the academic graduates were self-employed in 1976.

It may also be argued that the number of self-employed is much greater in the agriculture sector and that is is necessary to take into account sector of employment. But the number of students in vocational agricultural training was so small (1.3%, see Table 8.1) that these students could not have had much impact on this distribution even if all the vocational-agricultural students were in farming and none of those from general programs were.

The data, then seem to support the argument put forward by the vocational education community that there is a higher tendency among vocational graduates to become self-employed. Although the numbers are quite small, we can ask whether this tendency holds true for both males and females and for both whites and non-whites. Tables 8.9 through 8.12 provide some insight with regard to this question. For both males and females, graduates of vocational programs are more likely to be self-employed: 50% for males and 2.8% for females. The least likely to be self-employed, in both sex, are the graduates of academic programs. Tables 8.9 and 8.10 also indicate that regardless of high school program males are more likely than females tobe self-employed. The same pattern with regard to self-employment is true for whites in general but for blacks, there are very few self-employed from any program. Generally speaking, we can say that vocational education graduates are morelikely to be self-employed.

TABLE 8.9

CLASS OF EMPLOYMENT IN 1976 FOR MALES FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

Class of Employment	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Private business	80.1	82.2	81.2
Government	15.7	13.7	13.3
Self-employed	4.2	3.3	5.0
Non-paid worker	0.0	0.8	0.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(398,242)	(494,097)	(272,173)

TABLE 8.10

CLASS OF EMPLOYMENT IN 1976 FOR FEMALES FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

Class of Employment	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Private business	85.4	76.8	77.2
Government	13.6	22.4	20.0
Self-employed	1.0	0.3	2.8
Non-paid worker	0.0	0.5	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(269,076)	(457,902)	(266,978)

TABLE 8.11

CLASS OF EMPLOYMENT IN 1976 FOR NONWHITES FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

Class of Employment	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Private business	70.4	67.9	72.0
Government	29.0	31.0	27.5
Self-employed	0.5	1.0	0.4
Non-paid worker	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(146,904)	(104,862)	(98,189)

TABLE 8.12

CLASS OF EMPLOYMENT IN 1976 FOR WHITES FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(PERCENT)

Class of Employment	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Private business	85.3	80.3	78.5
Government	11.0	16.7	15.8
Self-employed	3.7	2.3	4.9
Non-paid worker	0.0	0.7	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(513,475)	(839,615)	(436,794)

Differentiation and Tracking

A major concern in recent years with regard to education as a whole, and to vocational education in particular, has been inequity in treatment of a number of sectors in the population. In particular three types of discrimination have been addressed: discrimination against women, racial or ethnic minorities, and handicapped persons. These issues have been central in congressional debates on vocational education, and have given rise to numerous statements from interest groups particularly concerned with those areas. The NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund has charged that blacks are tracked into vocational education, and that discriminatory practices exist in enrolling students into the various programs. The League of Women Voters and the National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs have pointed out the existence of sex stereotyping, and Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm has stated that: "Training in agriculture, home economics and cosmetology is fine, but when we speak of training women with marketable skills, we find that in terms of other vocational types of programs nothing is being done."[1]

By use of sex and race information as well as program of enrollment in high school, we are able to study, at least to a certain extent, these statements. Tables 8.13 and 8.14 present information on high school program enrollment by sex and by race (white vs. non-white). Both females and non-whites have a proportionately higher enrollment in vocational education than do males and whites, respectively. The number of non-whites in general programs is also disproportionately high. As a result non-whites are underrepresented in academic education. The same proportion

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[1] Hearing of the House Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education, February 19, 1975.

TABLE 8.13

MALE AND FEMALE ENROLLMENT IN HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

High School Program	Male	Female
General	33.2	29.4
Academic	44.8	43.4
Vocational (total)	22.0	27.2
Agricultural occupations	2.5	0.1
Business occupations	2.1	21.1
Distributive education	1.9	1.8
Health occupations	0.1	0.8
Home economics	0.1	2.2
Trade or industrial occupations	15.3	1.2
Total	100.0	100.0
N	(1,492,059)	(1,484,287)

TABLE 8.14

ENROLLMENT OF NONWHITES AND WHITES IN HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(PERCENT)

High School Program	Nonwhites	Whites
General	41.8	28.7
Academic	27.1	48.2
Vocational (total)	31.1	23.1
Agricultural occupations	1.9	1.2
Business occupations	13.2	10.8
Distributive education	3.0	1.7
Health occupations	0.6	0.4
Home economics	2.2	0.9
Trade or industrial occupations	10.2	8.1
Total	100.0	100.0
N	(520,627)	(2,431,816)

of females as males, on the other hand, were in the academic program and their higher proportion in vocational education is related to a lower proportion in the general program.

In order to better understand these differences we decompose the vocational education category into its components. Table 8.13 gives some insight with regard to the situation of females. Particularly noticeable are the differences between business and commercial education as compared to trade and industrial: 21.1% of all females were in a business and commercial program, whereas only 2.1% of the males were enrolled. This relationship is reversed in trade and industrial training where only 1.2% of the females are enrolled as compared to 15.3% of the males. Although the numbers are very small, females are also overrepresented in health occupation programs and in home economics. The situation with non-whites vs. whites is quite different. Here we find (Table 8.14) that a higher proportion of non-whites are enrolled in practically all vocational programs. The data suggest, then, that the problem is quite different for females than it is for minorities. The issue for females is gaining entry into programs that they might have been excluded from in the past or, as pointed out earlier, the problem of sex stereotyping. The issue for non-whites is different. It brings to the fore the question of tracking non-whites into vocational education in general as opposed to other educational programs and it is less a question of distribution among the various vocational programs.

At this point the counter-argument can still be raised that this unequal distribution is not the work of the system but rather a reflection of differential preferences of those subgroups. In order to study this possibility we look at responses to the question: "How important was each of the following in influencing your choice of your present high school program?" Eleven sources are listed and the student is asked to state whether the source was: Not Important, Somewhat Important, or Very Important. We focus here on those sources related to the school such as counselors, teachers, principals and constraints such as program availability and assignment to a program. Since numbers of individuals in each cell would be too small to compare responses for females vs. males and whites vs. non-whites in each of the vocational programs, these were again combined into one category. Then for each program (i.e., general, academic, and vocational) we compared responses on perceived influence of various factors. We find here (tables not present since they are too numerous) that little difference exists between males and females. In some cases, influence of principal for example, we find a stronger influence on males than on females in all three programs. Thus, institutional "pressure" is not a factor in enrolling in the three major programs for females and males, and this is probably consistent with the fact that differences of enrollment are not that great between sexes.

In the comparison between whites and non-whites we find that non-whites on the whole tend to attribute greater importance to influence from teachers and counselors regardless of the program they are enrolled in. Yet the differential is much greater for those enrolled in general and vocational education than it is for those enrolled in an academic program. This means that many more non-whites than whites felt that teachers and counselors were a somewhat important or very important influence on their being in general or vocational programs. The differential for those in an academic program was much smaller. Table 8.15A shows attitudes about the importance of factors such as availability and being assigned to a program. Non-whites are twice as likely to attribute importance to these factors regardless of the program they are in, but the important figures are in the last row of Table 8.15B where three times as many non-whites as whites in vocational education attribute importance to being assigned to the program. This lends some support to the argument that non-whites are more likely to be tracked into vocational education at least as the students themselves perceive the matter.

TABLE 8.15A

PERCENT OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN A PROGRAM WHO ANSWERED THAT IF BEING THE ONLY AVAILABLE PROGRAM WAS A SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT OR VERY IMPORTANT FACTOR IN THEIR ENROLLMENT

High School Program	Nonwhite	White
General	39.3	18.4
Academic	18.0	8.9
Vocational	25.2	12.2

TABLE 8.15B

PERCENT OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN A PROGRAM WHO ANSWERED THAT BEING ASSIGNED TO THE PROGRAM WAS A SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT OR VERY IMPORTANT FACTOR IN THEIR ENROLLMENT

High School Program	Nonwhite	White
General	37.0	18.4
Academic	18.9	10.4
Vocational	22.6	7.2

Finally, one important aspect for those concerned with tracking into vocational education is the impact it has on future alternatives for gradutes in terms of education and work. "I have yet to find the first student in many high schools that was both in vocational education and was in an academic honors class, or in vocational education and advanced study programs."[1] (Incidentally, in response to this the witness gave him a name of a student in Californa.) In order to study this argument we crosstabulated the respondents' education level as of 1976 with the program they participated in during the senior year of high school. The results are presented in Table 8.16; 67.7% of the vocational students had only a high school education in 1976 as compared with 54.0% for graduates of the general program and 16.2% for graduates of the academic program. At the other extreme we find that only 6.5% of the vocational graduates had two or more years of college and 1.5% finished college by 1976, whereas the figures for enrollees in the general and academic program was 17.4% and 61.7%, respectively (for either two years or more of college or completing college combined). Vocational students are more likely than others to go on to a postsecondary vocational school but only a very small proportion of them do so.

As one can determine from Table 8.17 and Table 8.18, the same pattern emerges when we take students' ability into account. Using the standardized scores on vocabulary and mathematics tests given to participants of the survey, we divided the sample into low ability and high ability groups. We find that even for those with high scores on either test (vocabulary

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[1] Congressman Lehman in the hearings on Vocational and Occupational Education before the House Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education, February 19, 1975, Vol. 1, p. 334.

TABLE 8.16

EDUCATION COMPLETED BY 1976 FOR STUDENTS FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

Education Level	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
High school only	54.0	16.2	67.7
Vocational or business school			
Less than two years	11.6	4.9	11.1
Two years or more	3.1	3.0	5.3
College program			
Less than two years	13.9	14.1	7.9
Two years or more	12.7	30.0	6.5
Finished college	4.7	31.7	1.5
Master's degree	0.0	0.1	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(857,454)	(1,217,472)	(662,850)

or mathematics), graduates of vocational programs are less likely than graduates from the general and academic programs to recieve any form of postsecondary education four years after leaving high school. These findings seem to support the position that vocational education decreases the chances of one's receiving further education after high school. Here again we must be aware of the fact that other statistical techniques are better suited for a more rigorous analysis of the issue. Many factors not considered here, such as the expectation of others, family financial

TABLE 8.17

EDUCATION COMPLETED BY 1976 FOR LOW AND HIGH ABILITY STUDENTS FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

A. Low vocabulary score

Education Level	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
High school only	58.9	24.5	71.8
Some postsecondary education	41.1	75.5	28.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(526,211)	(307,888)	(422,338)

B. High vocabulary score

Education Level	General	Academic	Vocational
High school only	45.2	13.5	60.0
Some postsecondary education	54.8	86.5	40.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(288,774)	(866,824)	(210,428)

situation and education of parents, are important determinants of education attainment and they must be taken into account simultaneously. All these variables will exist in the Study of High School and Beyond and a sophisticated analysis of the issue will be possible.

It might be counter-argued that this reported relationship between program of participation in high school and postsecondary education merely represents the fact that students who do not plan to continue their education beyond high school are more likely to choose a vocational program

TABLE 8.18

EDUCATION COMPLETED BY 1976 FOR LOW AND HIGH ABILITY STUDENTS FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS

(Percent)

Educational level	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
A. Low mathematics score			
High school only	61.0	25.9	72.3
Some postsecondary education	39.0	74.1	27.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(536,840)	(218,700)	(447,711)
B. High mathematics score			
High school only	40.6	14.2	57.2
Some postsecondary education	59.4	85.8	42.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(278,145)	(956,008)	(185,055)

in high school rather than other programs. In other words, the decision, it is argued, not to obtain postsecondary education is prior to the choice of vocational education in high school, and thus one cannot criticize vocational education for limiting the prospects of postsecondary education.

Longitudinal data of the sort to be obtained in High School and Beyond are most appropriate for testing these two opposing hypotheses. The study will enable us to learn about changes that occur between the sophomore and the senior years with regard to high school program and plans for higher education. This information can be related to actual behavior upon completion of high school, in order that a better understanding of the process of decision-making and the effect of various programs is obtained. At the present, using the 1972 NLS data (where data were collected from students only once--in their senior year), we can study the relationship between high school program and postsecondary education for those students who stated that they made their decision about higher education in the tenth grade or earlier.

About 50% of the individuals with valid responses said that they made their decision about higher education (whether to go or not to go) when they were in tenth grade or earlier. Tables 8.19A, 8.19B, and 8.19C cross-classify students according to high school program and highest level of education obtained by 1976 (categorized into high school or at least some postsecondary education) for three subgroups: those who plan not to go on after high school, those who plan to receive postsecondary vocational training, and those who plan to go to college or university (all decided by tenth grade). We find that graduates of vocational programs comprise 52.9% of those planning not to continue studying after high school, 32.1% of those planning to continue to college. It is evident that students perceive a relationship between high school program and higher education, and those who plan to go to college are not likely to be in vocational programs. Furthermore, in each of the tables, vocational graduates are less likely to have postsecondary education than are graduates of other programs. Even among those who have plans

TABLE 8.19

EDUCATION COMPLETED BY 1976 FOR STUDENTS FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS AND WITH DIFFERENT EDUCATION PLANS

(Percent)

Educational level	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
A. Plan not to continue after high school			
High school only	87.7	63.7	86.9
Some postsecondary education	12.3	36.3	13.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(49,430)	(10,341)	(67,102)
B. Plan to receive some postsecondary education			
High school only	56.3	16.3	58.3
Some postsecondary education	43.7	83.7	41.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(39,988)	(20,181)	(31,237)
C. Plan to go to college			
High school only	17.3	7.0	26.8
Some postsecondary education	82.7	93.0	73.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(140,788)	(435,474)	(47,366)

to continue to college (Table 8.19C), 26.8% of vocational students did not have any postsecondary education by 1976, more than three times as many as the academic students (7.0%) who planned to go to college. We thus find two effects operating simultaneously: very few of those planning to receive higher education are enrolled in vocational education, and those that are enrolled are less likely than graduates of other programs to actually obtain higher education. While there is apparently preselection of programs in terms of future plans, controlling for plans, we still find a differential impact of the programs in terms of students' higher education.

It should be emphasized again, at this point, that the time in which the plans were made was determined retrospectively, and the subject can be illuminated by the longitudinal study where plans and participation in programs will actually be determined in two points in time.

To conclude then, the 1972 NLS data show that there are large differences in female enrollment in specific vocational programs as compared to males but there is no information relating this to school influence. Non-whites are overrepresented in all vocational programs and, in part, this might be attributed to the fact that they are more likely to be assigned to these programs as well as school personnel influencing in this direction rather than the academic direction (all this as perceived by students). One major consequence of being in a vocational program is a lower probability of obtaining postsecondary education and particularly completing college, even when we control for students' plans.

Vocational Education and Future Employment

As a last issue for analysis, we would like to discuss the relevance of vocational education for future employment. Often the question is raised as to how important vocational education is in one's future career. More specifically, as pointed out by Congressman Quie in the Hearings on Career Education (May 25, 1975), only a small percent of vocational education students go into the field for which they were trained. If this is the case, vocational education might not be particularly helpful for the graduates.

The most reasonable way to study this issue would be to analyze the distribution of occupations of individuals, as reported in the follow-ups, by type of program they were in during high school. This is not easy to do because vocational programs are not meant to train for one specific occupation but rather for a range of jobs, and it is hard to tell whether a specific reported occupation is one the individual trained for or whether it is not (particularly since we do not have job descriptions). Nevertheless, we do attempt to address the issue (although very crudely) in the following paragraphs. We limit ourselves here to agricultural occupations, health occupations, and business occupations since they are defined fairly clearly, and since there exist special vocational programs in each of the three areas.

Table 8.20 presents information about high school program and subsequent jobs. Of those who participated in a vocational-health occupations program, 36.1% of those reporting a job in 1973 were employed in some health occupation. This proportion decreases in 1974 and increases again in 1976. (In 1974, 16% of the health occupations graduates listed military as their occupation. It is possible that at least some had health-related jobs in the military, so that the proportion in health occupations in 1974 might actually be higher.) We also see that approximately two-thirds

TABLE 8.20

PERCENT OF GRADUATES IN VOCATIONAL PROGRAM WHO WERE IN RELATED OCCUPATIONS IN EACH OF THE FOLLOW-UP YEARS

(Percent)

Occupations	1973	1974	1976
Health occupations[a]	36.1	26.3	41.6
Agricultural occupations[b] .	14.1	19.2	34.0
Business occupations[c]. . . .	60.5	66.1	68.2

[a] All health occupations including professional, technical and ancillary occupations.

[b] All occupations in which the word agriculture appears.

[c] All office and administrative occupations.

of the graduates of vocational business training remained in related occupations through the four-year period; 14.1% of the graduates of agricultural programs were reported in agriculture in 1973, but 34% reported an agriculture-related job in 1976. In fact, these figures are difficult to interpret because many of the graduates of agriculture training programs reported their occupation as machine operators or repairmen, and this might very well be related to their courses of study.

In summary, we find that the data from the 1972 NLS, crude as it may be, does not support the argument that only a small percent of vocational graudates go into the field for which they trained. During the first four years after graduation, large proportions of students (at times exceeding 50%) are occupied in jobs that are related to the vocational program they were in.

In order to further elaborate this discussion of high school training and future jobs, we turn to subjective measures of this relationship, utilizing information on perceived adequacy and usefulness of training for job held after completion of high school.

In this case one would like information from all those who were working about their high school program and its relevance to their current job. Unfortunately, in the first follow-up in 1973, students were first asked whether they received training in high school intended to prepare for immediate employment upon leaving school. Only those that answered this question positively were then asked whether they worked in a job where they expected to use this training. Table 8.21 shows that vocational graduates were much more likely to receive specialized training in high school, which is not surprising. What is more interesting is the fact that many students in the general and academic programs felt that they had received specialized training in high school. Once this factor is taken into account there seems to be little difference among the graduates of different programs, with regard to the proportion of students working in jobs where they expected to use high school experience (Table 8.22). Approximately the same proportion of graduates from all three programs believed that they could have secured these jobs without training (36% to 40%). Although the data are limited as mentioned earlier, the information that does exist does not support the notion that vocational graduates find their training more relevant to work than others.

The information obtained from respondents in 1976 suffers from the same deficiency pointed to earlier. Questions about experience of the job presently held were asked only of those who received some formal

TABLE 8.21

ANSWERS IN 1973 TO THE QUESTION: DID YOU RECEIVE SPECIALIZED TRAINING IN HIGH SCHOOL AS PREPARATION FOR WORK, FOR DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS?

(Percent)

Specialized Training	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
No	75.4	88.9	37.4
Yes	24.6	11.1	62.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(835,158)	(1,244,601)	(662,850)

TABLE 8.22

ANSWERS IN 1973 TO THE QUESTION: DID YOU HAVE A JOB WHERE YOU EXPECTED TO USE THE TRAINING RECEIVED IN HIGH SCHOOL FOR STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS?

Use of Training	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Never looked for such a job	27.8	24.1	21.3
Looked but did get the job .	16.3	12.7	16.1
Yes	55.9	63.2	62.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(195,719)	(133,698)	(598,240)

training for the job. Of those who were working and did receive training (Table 8.23), approximately the same proportion of respondents from all three high school programs responded that they were able to use what they learned (82.2% for vocational graduates, 75.9% for graduates of academic programs, and 74.7% for graduates from a general program). Vocational graduates were somewhat less likely to say that the training they received differed from the way things were done on the job (Table 8.24) but they were also more likely than academic graduates to respond that they could have secured the job even without special training (Table 8.25).

One major problem with the above analysis is the fact that by 1976, four years have passed since the respondents were seniors and possibly they received postsecondary training for their jobs. This might explain the finding that more graduates of academic programs who were working said that they used their training on the job than did graduates of other programs (Table 8.23). In order to refine the analysis, we consider only those who received the training in high school and not in postsecondary education. Once we limit the discussion to those who claim that they received formal training in high school for the job they did, we find in Table 8.26 that 91.7% of ocational graduates said that they use most of what they learned in school. This is a higher proportion than in other high school programs. Vocational students are also less likely to say that their training differed from the job requirements (Table 8.27). They were also less likely to feel that they could have secured the job without training (Table 8.28).

Although very rough measures were used here in order to study the question of relevance of vocational education for work, it seems that,

TABLE 8.23

THE EXPERIENCE OF STUDENTS FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS IN USING WORK TRAINING ON THEIR JOB IN 1976

(Percent)

Use of Training	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Experience of student . . .	74.7	75.9	82.2
Not experience of student .	25.3	24.1	17.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(142,822)	(344,332)	(158,874)

TABLE 8.24

STUDENTS" EXPERIENCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRAINING AND JOB REQUIREMENTS IN 1976 FOR GRADUATES OF DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

(Percent)

Training Similar to Requirements	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Student's experience	35.3	30.0	35.4
Not student's experience . .	64.7	70.0	64.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.00
N	(170,281)	(341,218)	(158,980)

TABLE 8.25

THE EXPERIENCE OF STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS OF GETTING THE JOB WITHOUT TRAINING: 1976

(Percent)

Getting Job without Training	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Student's experience	27.9	18.3	26.5
Not student's experience . .	72.1	86.7	73.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(170,352)	(341,838)	(157,652)

TABLE 8.26

THE EXPERIENCE OF STUDENTS FROM DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS IN USING HIGH SCHOOL TRAINING ON THEIR JOB: 1976

(Percent)

Use of Training	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Experience of student . . .	26.3	76.5	91.7
Not experience of student .	13.7	23.5	8.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(48,362)	(58,747)	(80,993)

TABLE 8.27

THE EXPERIENCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRAINING IN HIGH SCHOOL AND JOB REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS: 1976

(Percent)

Training Similar to Requirements	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Student's exeprience	35.9	29.8	41.2
Not student's experience . .	64.1	70.2	58.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(47,886)	(59,071)	(81,365)

TABLE 8.28

THE EXPERIENCE OF STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS OF GETTING THE JOB WITHOUT TRAING RECEIVED IN HIGH SCHOOL: 1976

(Percent)

Getting Job without Training	High School Program		
	General	Academic	Vocational
Students' experience	29.9	13.9	11.2
Not students' experience . .	70.1	86.1	88.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
N	(48,024)	(59,388)	(80,899)

at least for those who received their training only in high school, students perceived their vocational education as highly relevant and, in fact, many held occupations in their field of training.

Therefore, even if one may argue that by the time students complete some form of postsecondary education, non-vocational students are just as trained as vocational students for the jobs they hold, this does not refute the statement put forward by the proponents of vocational education that participants in their programs do find the training useful for future jobs, and this is particularly true for those that do not receive postsecondary education.

CHAPTER 9

STUDENT LOANS

Effects of Inadequate Information About Loans on Enrollment and Educational Equity

The two major student loan programs are an integral part of the range of Federal student aid programs, with $960 million for the Guaranteed Student Loan Program (GSLP) and $235 million for the National Direct Student Loan Program (NDSLP) budgeted for fiscal year 1980. In 1976-1977, 695,000 students received a student loan through the GSLP and 757,000 through the NDSLP. The average amount of NDSL's was $750 and of GSL's was $1,380 (Atelsek and Gomberg, 1977:15,19,20).

Due to various problams with the existing loan programs, there have been numerous proposals for changes in the programs, ranging to tinkering with the existing programs to replacing the two programs with an entirely new arrangement. Positions regarding student loans taken by representatives of the various sectors of higher education reflect the varying degree to which loans are used to finance students in the various types of institutions. Because the public institutions aim for low tuitions rather than student financial aid, the Federal costs of student loans (including interest subsidies), the special allowance to lenders, and payments on defaults are seen as excessive. Loan programs which may eventually lead to full-cost pricing of higher education are viewed favorably.

> Every state and Federal policy-maker should view with great caution proposals for long-term, high-interest loans, contingency repayment plans, and "student loan bank" or "tuition advance fund" proposals, to make sure they are not based on "hidden agenda" plans to force public higher education tuition much higher, and require more students to rely on expensive loans (AASCU, 1970).

> We believe that loan programs should not be emphasized, especially for high risk students and for students from low income families. For these students, a loan may much more closely represent a form of self-indenture than an opportunity for education (Recommendations, AACJC, 1975).

Student loans are of higher priority for the independent institutions, particularly the high-cost schools. Spokesmen for the independent sector support the continuation of the student loan programs on the basis that subsidies and grants will never be adequate to insure the availability of an independent college education for all who might desire it (Finn, 1978:87).

This major split in positions regarding the role to be played by student loan programs encompasses the question of who is to pay the costs of higher education. While it is not possible to resolve such a philosophical issue, discussions regarding various provisions of the loan programs might be informed by using data such as that contained in High School and Beyond. Concern about various aspects of the existing loan programs is expressed by a number of interest groups.

To begin an examination of the way the 1972 National Longitudinal Survey might enter the discussion regarding student loans, arguments against the use of student loans to assure access to higher education will be considered. The first criticism, directed against all forms of financial aid by public-college advocates of low tuition, is that students will be discouraged from attending college by looking at the costs without being aware of the available financial aid options.

Tables 9.1 and 9.2 show the lack of knowledge regarding the NDSLP and the GSLP. Of all students, 24% were unaware of the NDSLP and 28% were unaware of the GSLP.

It could be argued that students who might have attended college but did not were precluded from going because of a lack of knowledge

TABLE 9.1

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE NATIONAL DIRECT STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (NDSLP)

	Percent
Yes, I plan to use the NDSLP	7%
No, I do not plan to use the NDSLP	68
I do not know about the program	24
Total	100%
N	16,107

TABLE 9.2

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (GSLP)

	Percent
Yes, I plan to use the program	7%
No, I do not plan to use the program	64
I do not know about the program	28
Total	100%
N	16,093

regarding financial aid options, student loans being one of these. Tables 9.3 and 9.4 do not support this argument.[1] The percentage of students who lacked knowledge about the two programs is not any higher among students who had plans other than college than among college-bound students. There is no clear-cut distinction in the level of knowledge about the availability of student loans between those who planned to go on to higher education and those who did not. In considering educational plans directly, Tables 9.5 and 9.6 show that among those students who did not plan to continue their education beyond high school, a smaller percentage of students in fact lacked knowledge about the student loan programs. There are problems, of course, with the data, for the question did not allow multiple responses, and some who planned not to use it also did not know about it.

The problem of the lack of information regarding student loans might be better reflected when different income levels, rather than different educational goals, are considered. Tables 9.7 and 9.8 show that a higher percentage of lower-income than of middle- and upper-income students were unaware of the two loan programs.[2]

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[1] Here we are using only simple cross-tabulations to examine various arguments. A more appropriate analysis for this argument, however, would be one in which college plans were taken as a dependent variable, and a variety of potential causal factors were introduced as independent variables with one being knowledge of loan programs. Unless this variable had a significant coefficient representing its effect, there would be no evidence to support this argument. Even with such an analysis, a positive inference may be mistaken because the effect may be in the reverse direction, with college plans affecting knowledge. A simultaneous equation model, while not without problems, would probably come closest to the correct answer with these data.

[2] Income categories were trichotomized on the basis of the distribution. Lower income is up to $7,499, middle income, $7,500-13,499, and upper income is $13,500 and above.

TABLE 9.3

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE NATIONAL DIRECT STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (NDSLP) BY PLANS FOR FIRST YEAR AFTER HIGH SCHOOL

	Working Full Time	Apprenticeship	Military	Homemaker	Vocational Technical	Junior College/ Academic	Junior College/ Technical	Four-Year College or University	Working Part Time	Other	Total
Yes, I plan to use the NDSLP	4%	4%	5%	2%	3%	5%	5%	15%	3%	4%	8%
No, I do not plan to use the NDSLP	74	72	67	81	72	67	65	62	67	67	68
I don't know about the program	23	24	28	17	25	28	30	23	30	28	24
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	4,211	411	573	454	1,489	1,705	885	5,291	324	678	16,107

TABLE 9.4

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (GSLP) BY PLANS FOR FIRST YEAR AFTER HIGH SCHOOL

	Working Full Time	Apprenticeship	Military	Homemaker	Vocational Technical	Junior College/ Academic	Junior College/ Technical	Four-Year College or University	Working Part Time	Other	Total
Yes, I plan to use the GSLP	4%	6%	5%	2%	10%	7%	7%	10%	6%	4%	7%
No, I do not plan to use the GSLP	72	69	67	82	64	60	59	60	62	65	65
I don't know about the program	24	25	28	17	26	33	34	30	32	31	28
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	4,208	410	571	455	1,492	1,707	883	5,282	325	675	16,093

TABLE 9.5

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE NATIONAL DIRECT STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (NDSLP) BY HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION WOULD LIKE TO ATTAIN

	Less Than High School Graduation	High School Graduation	Vocational Technical	Junior College	Four-Year College	Graduate School	Total
Yes, I plan to use the NDSLP	8%	1%	2%	2%	7%	14%	8%
No, I do not plan to use the NDSLP	68	82	75	72	68	63	69
I do not know about the program	24	17	22	26	25	23	23
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	79	617	2,063	919	3,230	3,982	10,889

TABLE 9.6

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (GSLP) BY HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION WOULD LIKE TO ATTAIN

	Less Than High School Graduation	High School Graduation	Vocational Technical	Junior College	Four-Year College	Graduate School	Total
Yes, I plan to use the GSLP	6%	1%	5%	5%	7%	10%	7%
No, I do not plan to use the GSLP	69	82	72	68	63	60	65
I do not know about the program	24	16	23	27	30	30	28
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	78	616	2,067	920	3,227	3,980	10,882

TABLE 9.7

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE NATIONAL DIRECT STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (NDSLP) BY PARENTS' INCOME

	Lower Income	Middle Income	Upper Income	Total
Yes, I plan to use the NDSLP	12%	8%	5%	8%
No, I do not plan to use the NDSLP	61	69	75	68
I do not know about the program	27	23	20	24
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	3,957	5,135	3,679	12,771

TABLE 9.8

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (GSLP) BY PARENTS' INCOME

	Lower Income	Middle Income	Upper Income	Total
Yes, I plan to use the GSLP	10%	8%	5%	8%
No, I do not plan to use the GSLP	59	65	71	65
I do not know about the program	31	27	24	27
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	3,950	5,134	3,685	12,769

It might be argued, however, that the lack of knowledge problem is not revealed by the above tables because students who do not plan to go on to college were able merely to answer appropriately, "No, do not plan to use," for all forms of financial aid. Thus, answers to this question do not necessarily reflect the level of student knowledge regarding the availability of financial aid. Thus the effect of knowledge regarding the availability of student loans among 1972 high school seniors on college attendance remains elusive. The question of such an effect of the loan programs is of course a crucial one. The attendance rate at colleges and universities might be dependent on students' knowledge of the availability of various financial aid programs; some college students who are recipients of student financial aid might not have attended without the aid and some students may have foregone higher education plans due to a lack of knowledge about student loans. Furthermore, in the case of student loans, student initiative is required in the application process.[1] This is particularly important in the case of Guaranteed Student Loans which usually require an application made at a financial institution. If potential students are not aware of the steps required to obtain a student loan, the program may not be sufficiently effective in providing access to higher education.

This analysis shows an obvious flaw in the form of the 1972 NLS data: by not separating intention to use the loan from knowledge about it, the important question of whether lack of knowledge of the loan programs affects plans to attend college is made even more difficult. The problem is far less simple than others which appear similar, because of the fact that both plans to attend college and knowledge of loan availability are potentially capable of affecting the other. Without simultaneous-equation estimation (which requires strong assumptions about other factors affecting the two variables in question) or data at two or more points in time, the question can not be satisfactorily answered. This implies that in the new research, the 1980-1982 changes among 1980 sophomores will be of particular importance for this question.[1]

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[1] While most forms of financial aid require applications, it is often a college financial aid officer who puts together a package of financial aid for a particular student once the initial effort of applying is made.

Effect of Loans on Educational Equity Due to Risk-Aversion Differences by Background

A second criticism of student loans is that students from lower-income families, who would be most in need of student aid to meet college costs, are averse to the idea of borrowing money to pay for college. Table 9.9 shows that the amount students are willing to borrow to finance their education is related to parents' income. Of all students, those of lower-income background are much less likely to be willing to borrow substantial amounts, while those of middle- and upper-income backgrounds appear to be more comfortable with the idea of a large educational debt. For example, looking at the extreme category of how many students would be willing to borrow more than $6,000, only 3% of the lower-income students would be willing to borrow this amount to finance their education, while 4% of middle-income and 8% of upper-income students would be willing to borrow such a large amount.

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[1] One might conjecture that the process is one with interdependent effects: students with weak intentions to attend college do not exercise effort to learn about financial aid programs; this absence of knowledge of aid further weakens intentions, so that in the end, such a person neither knows of aid programs nor plans to attend college. It is possible that the appropriate policy question is slightly different from the one posed by advocates and critics of financial aid programs: "What is the appropriate degree of effort a prospective college student should expend to obtain financial aid?" and, in the current programs: "Is the appropriate degree of effort achieved, and is it independent of student background characteristics?"

TABLE 9.9

AMOUNT STUDENTS IN THE FIRST FOLLOW-UP WOULD BE WILLING TO BORROW TO FINANCE THEIR EDUCATION BY PARENTS' INCOME

	Lower Income	Middle Income	Upper Income	Total
None	40%	38%	31%	36%
Up to $500	11	9	6	9
$501 - $999	13	12	9	11
$1,000 - $1,999	13	13	14	13
$2,000 - $3,999	10	12	14	12
$4,000 - $4,999	4	5	7	6
$5,000 - $6,000	6	7	11	8
More than $6,000	3	4	8	5
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	4,357	5,781	4,435	14,573

Why is this the case? Several explanations have been offered. Informants at the Illinois State Scholarship Commission and at the Student Loan Marketing Association have suggested several reasons. Students from lower-income families may not be comfortable with the idea of using credit. Secondly, the amount of a student loan, say $1,000, would seem like a much greater amount to a student from a lower-income family than to others because it represents a greater proportion of the amount of money to which the student is accustomed. Lower-income individuals may have lived through a bad experience when their parents were in debt, making them cautious of any kind of debt.

Some of the features of the GSLP may work against the participation of lower-income and minority students. The fact that the loans are mainly made by financial institutions presents an obstacle to the student from a family without an established credit record. The GSLP has been criticized by the Hispanic Higher Education Coalition for this reason.

> Historically, many minority and lower-income students have not had access to banking and lending institutions; therefore, the Guaranteed Student Loan Program has not been a viable program for them (Hispanic Higher Education Coalition, 1979:17).

For this reason, the Hispanic Higher Education Coalition is calling for a set-aside for minority students in order for them to receive a larger share of student aid funds.

The 1972 data fail to support the claim that minority and lower-income students underutilize the GSLP. The percentage of minority students who take advantage of the GSLP is larger than the percentage of white students who do so. Table 9.10 shows that the percentage of blacks and Hispanics who are GSLP recipients is higher than the percentage of whites,

TABLE 9.10

COLLEGE-BOUND HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO EXPECT TO USE THE GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (GSLP) BY ETHNICITY

	Blacks	Hispanics	Whites	Total
Yes, I expect to use the GSLP	25%	20%	10%	12%
No, I do not expect to use the GSLP	75	80	90	88
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	831	308	6,305	7,444

by a large amount.[1] In Table 9.11, it is striking that in each income category, the percentage of both blacks and Hispanics who make use of the GSLP is higher than the percentage of whites who do so. In looking at recipients of Guaranteed Student Loans by income in Table 9.12, it is apparent that prospective college students from lower-income families are the most active participants in the GSLP. The data show that 20% of the college-bound students of lower-income background expected to have a GSL, compared to 14% of middle-income and 8% of upper-income students. Thus, the 1972 data fail to support the argument that features of the GSLP act to discourage the participation of minority and lower-income students.

It has been argued that the NDSLP, although it was not designed expressly for the purpose, has assumed the role of making loan capital available to those students who are unable to obtain a loan through financial institutions. For this reason, there has been opposition to any move made by the Administration to phase out the NDSLP and rely exclusively on the GSLP. The data suggest that minorities are more likely to take advantage of the NDSLP than of the GSLP although the differences are not great. Tables 9.13 and 9.14 show that among the college-bound high school seniors, the percentage of students with NDSL compared with GSL is marginally higher among lower-income students than among middle- and upper-income students, and marginally higher among blacks and Hispanics than

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[1] This question about use of the GSLP is a different one than that of Tables 1-8, asked later in the questionnaire only of students planning to attend college. There is a peculiar discrepancy in response between these two questions: here, 12% say they expect to use the GSLP, while Table 4 shows (averaging over the three categories of students with college plans) something under 10%. We have no explanation for this difference; it should serve as a reminder, however, that there may be substantial response error in questions about programs that are distinct and well known to Federal officials, but hazy and hardly distinguishable to potential recipients.

TABLE 9.11

COLLEGE-BOUND HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO EXPECT TO USE THE GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (GSLP) BY ETHNICITY CONTROLLED FOR INCOME

	Lower Income			Middle Income			Upper Income		
	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic	White
Yes, I expect to use the GSLP	28%	26%	15%	23%	14%	13%	17%	12%	7%
No, I do not expect to use the GSLP	72	74	85	77	86	87	83	88	93
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	410	152	827	208	88	2,119	70	26	2,206

TABLE 9.12

COLLEGE-BOUND HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO EXPECT TO USE THE GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (GSLP) BY PARENTS' INCOME

	Lower Income	Middle Income	Upper Income	Total
Yes, I expect to use the GSLP	20%	14%	8%	13%
No, I do not expect to use the GSLP	80	86	92	87
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	1,473	2,522	2,413	6,408

TABLE 9.13

TYPE OF LOAN RECEIVED BY INCOME

	Lower Income	Middle Income	Upper Income	Total
National Direct Student Loan	54%	51%	48%	52%
Guaranteed Student Loan	46	49	52	48
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	849	801	383	2,033

TABLE 9.14

TYPE OF LOAN RECEIVED BY ETHNICITY

	Blacks	Hispanics	Whites	Total
National Direct Student Loan	54%	54%	50%	51%
Guaranteed Student Loan	46	46	50	49
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	458	136	1,286	1,880

among whites. An alternative explanation for this result may be that the NDSLP is tied to need, while the GSLP is not. Thus, blacks and Hispanics may more often qualify for NDSLP loans than whites.

It may be that these tables do not give the whole story. Because many GSLs are administered through state guarantee agencies, a student might identify his GSL as a state loan without realizing that the program is Federally funded. Likewise, an NDSL might be recorded by a student as a college or university loan because these are administered through the institution.[1] The responses to these two categories, as shown in Tables 9.15 and 9.16, however, do not support this idea, as the responses to these categories are approximately the same. The data do not support the argument that the NDSLP serves minorities to a greater extent than does the GSLP.

Loans and Type of Institution Attended

The student loan programs are viewed by representatives of the independent sector as one of the forms of financial aid that allow students to exercise choice in selecting a school. It might be argued that student loans allow students of all backgrounds to attend higher-cost institutions. Table 9.17 shows that a greater percentage of the students at independent institutions do make use of student loans, with 23% of the students at private institutions compared to 10% of the students at public institutions claiming a student loan during 1973-74.

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[1] In fact, the recipient of a GSL might have responded to four categories: "Guaranteed Student Loan Program," "State or local scholarship or loan program," "Regular Bank Loan," or "College or university scholarship or loan." A recipient of a NDSL might have responded to two categories: "National Direct Student Loan Program" or "College or university scholarship or loan."

TABLE 9.15

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIP OR LOAN BY ETHNICITY

	Blacks	Hispanics	Whites	Total
Yes, I plan to use college scholarship or loan	43%	36%	22%	25%
No, I don't plan to use college scholarship or loan	57	64	78	75
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	1,574	540	10,867	12,981

TABLE 9.16

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE STATE OR LOCAL SCHOLARSHIP BY ETHNICITY

	Blacks	Hispanics	Whites	Total
Yes, I plan to use state or local scholarship	41%	36%	21%	24%
No, I do not plan to use state or local scholarship	59	64	79	76
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%
N	1,492	519	10,674	12,685

TABLE 9.17

NATIONAL DIRECT STUDENT LOAN OR GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN RECIPIENTS BY SOURCE OF FUNDING FOR HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION ATTENDED DURING 1972-73

	Public	Private	Total
Yes, I had a student loan	10%	23%	13%
No, I did not have a student loan	90	77	87
Total	100%	100%	100%
N	6,676	2,024	8,700

The same comparison could be made more directly by looking at high-cost institutions in comparison to low-cost institutions. Table 9.18 shows that students at institutions costing $1,500 or less are less likely to have a loan than students at institutions which cost more than $1,500. While 25% of the students at high-cost institutions had a loan, only 10% of the students at lower-cost institutions did. It could be argued that students who otherwise would not attend a high-cost institution, usually independent, are able to consider this option because of the opportunity to take out a student loan.

The same comparison can be made between students at four-year and two-year institutions, the argument being that student loans allow students to choose a four-year institution over a two-year one. Table 9.19 shows that during the first follow-up, students at four-year institutions were more likely to have an NDSL or GSL, 17% in comparison to 6%.

The community college representatives are concerned that their institutions are not receiving their fair share of the available funds for higher education. The same data as shown in Table 9.19 can be used to press this

TABLE 9.18

STUDENT LOAN RECIPIENTS DURING 1973-74 BY THE TOTAL SCHOOL EXPENSES

	Total School Expenses		Total
	$1,500 or Less	More than $1,500	
Yes, I had a student loan	10%	25%	18%
No, I did not have a student loan	90	75	82
Total	100%	100%	100%
N	3,766	4,520	8,286

TABLE 9.19

STUDENT LOAN RECIPIENTS DURING 1973-74 BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION

	Junior College	Four-Year College	Total
Yes, I had a student loan	6%	17%	12%
No, I did not have a student loan	94	83	88
Total	100%	100%	100%
N	1,135	1,498	2,633

claim: only 6% of community college students have such a loan compared to 17% of four-college students. Whether this means that loans give students greater opportunity to choose a more expensive program, as four-year independent college representatives would argue, or that community colleges are not getting a fair share of the funds, as their representatives would argue, cannot be resolved by the data. Resolution depends upon whether one believes that funds for higher education should go to students or to institutions.[1]

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[1] This is the same philosophical argument all over again that is used in relation to vouchers at the elementary and secondary level. The issue has been resolved somewhat differently in higher education, with a mix of funds to students and to institutions.

One explanation of the data in Table 9.19 is that students at community colleges, which are not as costly, are in less need of financial aid. But this assumes that college choice is itself influenced by financial need. In contrast, it could be that many of the community college students, unaware of the student loan programs, might have selected a community college precisely because they are not generally as expensive as four-year institutions. Tables 9.20 and 9.21 show that a greater percentage of students at the lower-priced institutions were unaware of the NDSLP with 26% of the students at lower-priced institutions unaware of the NDSLP compared with only 21% of the students at the higher-priced institutions. There is no difference, however, in the level of knowledge regarding the GSLP: 30% of the students at lower-priced institutions were unaware of the GSLP compared to 29% of the students at higher-priced institutions. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude, on the basis of the data, that community colleges are being selected by students who are unaware of the student loan programs.

Altogether, the data illustrate the point made earlier: that without information on college plans and on knowledge of and plans about financial aid programs at two or more points in time, one can hardly hope to separate out the effects of each on the other. Conceivably, the base year and first follow-up data from 1972 could be used in this way; information at two points prior to college entrance (as will be available for the sophomore 1980 cohort) is better. Alternatively, with data on state-by-state variations in loan and other financial aid programs, it would be possible to use the state variations as a natural experiment to study effects on rate of attendance and type of institution attended.

TABLE 9.20

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE NATIONAL DIRECT STUDENT LOAN (NDSLP) BY TOTAL SCHOOL EXPENSES DURING 1972-73

	Total School Expenses		Total
	$1,500 or Less	More than $1,500	
Yes, I plan to use the GSLP	6%	16%	10%
No, I do not plan to use the GSLP	67	63	66
I do not know about the program ..	26	21	24
Total	100%	100%	100%
N	4,654	3,378	8,032

TABLE 9.21

HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS' PLANS TO USE THE GUARANTEED STUDENT LOAN PROGRAM (GSLP) BY TOTAL SCHOOL EXPENSES DURING 1972-73

	Total School Expenses		Total
	$1,500 or Less	More than $1,500	
Yes, I plan to use the NDSLP	7%	11%	9%
No, I do not plan to use the NDSLP	62	60	61
I do not know about the program ..	30	29	30
Total	100%	100%	100%
N	4,652	3,783	8,035

Educational Debt and Selection of Field of Study

Another major concern regarding student loans is that students with large loan debts will make field of study and career selections based on financial considerations. Although the cumulative debt limit under the GSLP is $7,500 for undergraduates and $15,000 through graduate school, a student might also have a loan under NDSLP or another loan program, so that it is possible to accumulate a staggering debt. There is concern that students who are in this situation will find it imperative to enter a more lucrative field than they might have otherwise done. The example often cited to illustrate this problem is the medical student who, faced with enormous debts, decides against becoming a general practitioner in order to earn the higher income commanded by a specialist.

The medical student is one example of how a student loan debt might discourage a student from making field of study and career selections based on his interests and talent, rather than on the basis of anticipated income.

> One private university has begun to look at the relationship between the debt levels of their undergraduates and the subsequent selection of career, timing of further education, and choice of academic discipline. While the results are not yet conclusive, students seem to rule out certain educational or career alternatives because of their recognition of the obligation to repay the loans used in financing their undergraduate education. . . . Will there be a lost generation of scholarship in certain disciplines, as some leaders have suggested? Where enrollments and research funding are declining there is a danger that vital areas of scholarship will be neglected (Symposium, 1977:5).

It may be the case that students with special abilities are not matched with jobs demanding their skills, and that occupations that provide a modest income are able to attract the more qualified students. While it is likely that most students will desire to make their college educations "pay off," the anticipation of a large loan debt would presumably tend to lead more forcefully in this direction.

It is possible to consider the role played by an educational debt by looking at factors taken into consideration in selection of field of study. A longitudinal survey is particularly well-suited to looking at the reasons an individual makes a change in plans. Table 9.22 shows that, of the students who had a student loan, 44% had changed their field of study because of the prospect of more jobs, in comparison to 36% of those who did not have a student loan. This suggests that there may be some effect--that a student with an educational debt is more likely to choose a field of study on the basis of prospective jobs in that field.[1]

TABLE 9.22

REASONS FOR HAVING CHANGED FIELD OF STUDY AMONG STUDENTS WITH AND WITHOUT EDUCATIONAL DEBT

	With Educational Debt	Without Educational Debt	Total
More jobs was a reason for field of study change ...	44%	36%	38%
More jobs was not a reason for field of study change ...	56	64	62
Total	100%	100%	100%
N	710	1,645	235

In response to this perceived problem of career choice flowing from the amount of loan debt, a number of solutions have been suggested. The National Student Educational Fund has proposed student loan forgiveness for participation in community service work (at less than the average wage) after leaving school. The loan cancellation mechanism would operate in the model of the former loan cancellation for teachers under the National Defense Student Loan Program. This proposal is supported by the United States Student Association.

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[1] The same caveat is necessary here as earlier: differences in reasons for changing jobs may be due to other factors correlated with educational debt. In an analysis using more powerful techniques, other factors could be statistically controlled when examining this relationship.

Defaults on Student Loans

The default rate for student loans, currently at 17% for NDSLs and 12.8% for GSLs, is the aspect of the two programs which has probably received the most popular attention. The default rate is of more concern to some than to others. Representative William D. Ford, Chairman of the House Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education, has said:

> Frankly it does not bother me that we lose 20 percent of the money. I don't think it is wasted. I think the fact we have given access to people who would not otherwise have access to higher education is worth 20 percent of the annual cost of the program (Committee on Education and Labor, 1977:346).

Or, as one of our respondents said:

> If we have a zero default rate there is no way to be sure students who would not get money otherwise are included. But we want to be fiscally responsible as well. It's a two-edged sword.

Student loans are granted purely on the basis of student status without the usual credit investigation made for conventional loans, on the assumption that payments will be made out of future earnings. The lack of collateral or cosigners for student loans contributes to the default rate.

These quotes suggest that there are some defaulters who do not elicit as much concern as others. The class of defaulters may be broken into those who are willful defaulters, those who are behind in their payments even though they have the financial ability to pay, and those defaulters who do not have the financial ability to stay current in their repayment schedule. Strategies to deal with the reduction of the default rate depend on the circumstances which lead some students to default. It has been suggested that some students default on their student loans because they were not adequately briefed as to the responsibilities for repayment associated with the loan when it was granted to them. If this is the case, it might be suggested that more vigorous information campaigns are required to reduce the rate of default. Table 9.23 supports this argument, although the differences are not large. More of the students who had not discussed the terms and conditions of the loan with someone, 35%, were having difficulty meeting the payments than of those who had discussed the terms and conditions of the loan, 28%.

Another explanation for the default rate is that the limited income of some graduates, especially during the years immediately following graduation, does not enable them to meet their payments. A proposed remedy for this situation is to link repayment to income. Table 9.24 shows that students who, in third follow-up, had a weekly income of $150 or less were more likely to report that they had difficulty in meeting payments than those who had higher incomes.

In conclusion, a number of issues surrounding the National Direct Student Loan Program and the Guaranteed Student Loan Program have been considered using the 1972 National Longitudinal Survey. First, it has been argued that some students who might have attended college were precluded from doing so due to a lack of knowledge regarding the availability of the loan programs to finance the expense. Data on the class of 1972 do not support this contention. There is no significant difference in the level of knowledge regarding the loan programs among students with different plans, educational goals, or family income backgrounds.

TABLE 9.23

DIFFICULTY IN MEETING PAYMENTS ON EDUCATIONAL DEBT BY WHETHER STUDENT HAD DISCUSSED TERMS AND CONDITIONS OF STUDENT LOAN

	Yes, I discussed terms and conditions of student loan	No, I did not discuss terms and conditions of student loan	Total
Difficulty in meeting payments ..	28%	35%	31%
No difficulty in meeting payments ..	72	65	69
Total	100%	100%	100%
N	483	425	908

TABLE 9.24

DIFFICULTY IN MEETING PAYMENTS ON EDUCATIONAL DEBT FOR THOSE WITH DIFFERENT LEVELS OF INCOME

	$150 or Less/Week	$151 to $400/Week
Difficulty in meeting payments	31%	22%
No difficulty in meeting payments	69	78
Total	100%	100%
N	396	321

Second, the participation of lower-income and minority students in the two programs was considered. The data show that lower-income students are less likely than middle- and upper-income students to be willing to borrow substantial amounts. Nonetheless, lower-income and minority students are more likely to actually participate in the two programs than are higher-income and white students, although the use of NDSLP relative to GSLP is slightly higher among black and Hispanic students than among white students.

Third, it has been argued that student loans enhance student choice by allowing students of all backgrounds to consider independent colleges and universities as well as public institutions. The data show that a larger percentage of students at independent, expensive, or four-year institutions than at public, less-expensive, or two-year institutions do, in fact, make use of the two loan programs.

Fourth, there is some concern that the anticipation of a large student loan debt acts to discourage students from entering less lucrative fields. In looking at the reasons why students changed their field of study, a somewhat greater percentage of students with a loan than of students without a loan claimed the prospect of more jobs was a reason why they changed their field of study.

Fifth, perhaps the major concern regarding the student loan programs is the default rate. Defaults were more prevalent among students who had not discussed the terms and conditions of the loan with someone and among students who had a weekly income of $150 or less.

CHAPTER TEN

EPILOGUE

The chapters in this report constitute a new departure in the planning and design of social policy research. It is a new departure in one central respect: beginning with a general domain of phenomena that are of public policy concern, it sets out to systematically use interested parties to identify the specific policies within that domain that are in current contention, and uses these same interested parties to identify the arguments and claims on all sides of the policy in question. These arguments and claims then serve as the source of analytical questions that arise with respect to the policies, which in turn generate points in the research design and specific items in the measurement instruments.

What has been achieved? Has this proved a viable strategy? Has it achieved its goal of designing pluralistic policy research that is responsive to the variety of interests that exist in the society on public policy issues in this domain? The question cannot really be answered, for there was in existence prior to this enterprise an overall design, together with specific instruments. The activity described in this report was superimposed upon the pre-existing design and pre-existing instruments, making marginal modifications in them but not designing them from the beginning.

The full test of this strategy for design of pluralistic policy research must, as a consequence, wait for another case, one which begins not with a design but only a domain. It will very likely turn out that a more severe test of this sort will show difficulties and flaws that are not evident in the present attempt.

It is useful, nevertheless, to reflect upon the outcome of the enterprise undertaken in these pages, to ask whether it has given different results than would have occurred with more conventional methods of designing policy research; then if it has given different results, how they are different; and finally, what seem to be serious omissions or distortions introduced by the method or at least not eliminated by the method.

In doing this, one might list systematically the points of difference from more conventional methods, and also prepare a systematic catalogue of possible distortions and omissions. It may, however, be best to proceed differently, to set down what appear to us to be the most striking differences in the results from those with which we are familiar, to set down what appear to us to be the most glaring omissions. This has the virtue of giving precedence to those qualities and faults which in our eyes are most prominent, omitting those that appear of lesser importance.

The central defect to such a reflection is that the more appropriate persons to review the qualities and faults of the enterprise are those who have had nothing to do with it. Its one virtue is that the very process of carrying out the work, of focussing attention on these issues for some time, leads to awareness of certain points that may not be apparent to a person who sees only the end product. Thus what we will do here is indicate those points that were most striking to us, both as qualities and defects, while accepting the reservation that a very different set of qualities and defects might be given by a reader or user of this document.

1. Perhaps the most striking point has been that the strategy does seem to work; that beginning with the arguments of interested parties does generate the analytical questions that explore the effects of policy. Furthermore, it seems to do so more comprehensively than conventional methods of design. Nowhere did we encounter policy-related analytical questions that had been in the

original research design but were missing from the questions generated by the procedure used in this report. In contrast, there were some policy issues, such as the issue of a subminimum wage for youth, that had not been previously identified, but were identified by the present approach, and there were cases of analytical questions in relation to particular policy issues that were newly identified by the method. For example, although the research had not neglected the policy issues of vocational training, the question of the effects of in-school versus out-of-school occupational training on subsequent employment had not been identified. Perhaps most frequent was the case in which there was already a vague awareness of an analytical question related to a given policy, but the inadequacy of the design for allowing a test of that question was not apparent until the research designed was set against the arguments and counter-arguments of interested parties. This is illustrated by the issue of student loans: the way information was obtained about knowledge of and intention to use student loans confounded knowledge with intended use, and thus prevented any possiblity of distinguishing the effect of college plans on knowledge about loans from the effect of knowledge on college plans.

2. Although the method appears to have been effective in relation to policy issues, it was of little value in identifying and illuminating problem areas that are of broader long-range public concern but are not now the subject of educational policy. Discipline in the schools is such a problem area, which is treated briefly in Chapter 5. It arose through contacts with interest groups, but was not explicit in the original organization of policy areas and thus received less full treatment than it otherwise would have. Another, not treated at all here, is the question of schools' adequacy in preparing youth for broader responsibilities of adulthood, beyond cognitive skills and occupational training.

The method used here appears not to be useful in identifying such longer-range problem areas around which policy has not crystallized. For that, the more classical approach to research design carried out in what we have in Chapter 1 called "discipline research" (in contrast to policy research) seems more effective.

3. One point that appears especially interesting is the fact that the enterprise carried out here seems not merely to have aided the research design; it has established a clear framework and agenda for analysis of the data, by laying out the data requirements for answering particular policy-related questions, and identifying where in the research instruments those data are to be found. Thus it provides a set of blueprints for research analysts, both those examining questions of interest to parties in the policy debate and those engaged in a more disinterested or "academic" analysis.

4. Finally, there is a substantive point which has emerged in the process of carrying out this enterprise. When viewed from the perspective of the present approach, much policy research and much policy making in Washington and in the state capitals bears the marks of having been formulated at a great distance from those who will experience the policies. A number of the interviews, particularly in the areas of secondary education discussed in Chapter 2, and especially among groups with what we have termed the "general education interests," expressed the problems of carrying out the day-to-day educational activities, and the poor mesh of many Federal policies with the conduct of those activities. It is perhaps important to note that at the local level, the education producers who constitute the general education interests are dominant, while at state and Federal levels, the special education interests are dominant. If all policy were made at the local level (as was once nearly true), the general education or producer interests might dominate, and the schools would run

well but perhaps at the expense of sacrificing some societal goals that are collectively held at the national level. If all policy were made at the state and national levels, a direction toward which recent policy-making has been moving, then the schools would be attentive to the goals held collectively at the national level, but perhaps at the expense of well-functioning schools.

Possibly this is a mistaken inference, one which goes too far beyond the evidence. Whether it is correct or mistaken, the impression first mentioned, that much policy and much policy research at Federal and state levels bears the marks of great distance from the objects of policy, is a strong one. If the impression is correct, and even more if the inferences drawn from it are correct, then the implication for the policy process is important: Unless some means are found for bringing the policy-making process closer to the actual functioning of the schools, state and Federal policy may seriously and continuously harm the education of America's youth.

One question that arises is whether pluralistically designed policy research can reduce the distance between, on the one hand, policy made at state and Federal levels, and on the other, the functioning of schools. It is not clear that it can. The research may be designed so that it addresses questions of concern to those at local levels; but unless they are sufficiently well organized to make use of that information in influencing state and Federal policy, these concerns will not enter the policy-making process.

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178

Appendix 1a
SR/Q 4278
1980

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High School and Beyond is sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics, an agency of the United States Department of Education.

Thank you for accepting our invitation to participate in HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND. This is a voluntary but important national survey. We are pleased that you have agreed to participate. Your cooperation and participation will help us learn more about the experiences of high school students and their plans for the future.

All information which would permit identification of the individual will be held in strict confidence, will be used only by persons engaged in and for the purposes of this survey, and will not be disclosed or released to others for any purposes except as required by law.

SENIOR QUESTIONNAIRE

STATE:

SCHOOL NO:

STUDENT NO:

Prepared for the National
Center for Education
Statistics by the National
Opinion Research Center
NCES Form 2409-03

As a matter of policy, the National Center for Education Statistics is concerned with protecting the privacy of individuals who participate in voluntary surveys. We want to let you know that:

1. Section 406 of the General Education Provisions Act (20-USC 1221e-1) allows us to ask you the questions in this questionnaire.
2. You may skip any question you do not wish to answer.
3. We are asking you these questions in order to gather information about what happens to students as they move out of high school and make decisions about post-secondary education and work.
4. Your responses will be merged with those of other students, and the answers you give will never be identified as yours.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

PLEASE READ EACH QUESTION CAREFULLY.

It is important that you follow the directions for responding to each kind of question. These are:

(MARK ONE)

What is the color of your eyes? (MARK ONE)

Brown	○	If the color of your eyes is green, you would mark the oval to the right of green.
Blue	○	
Green	●	
Another color	○	

(MARK ALL THAT APPLY)

Last week, did you do any of the following? (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)

See a play	○	If you went to a movie and attended a sporting event last week, you would mark the two ovals as shown.
Go to a movie	●	
Attend a sporting event	●	

(MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

Do you plan to do any of the following next week? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

	Yes	Not Sure	No	
a. Visit a relative	○	○	●	If you plan to study at a friend's house, do not plan to visit a relative, and are not sure about going to a museum next week, you would mark one oval on each line as shown.
b. Go to a museum	○	●	○	
c. Study at a friend's house	●	○	○	

This questionnaire is not a test. We hope you will answer every question, but you may skip any question you do not wish to answer.

WE HOPE YOU WILL ANSWER EVERY QUESTION, BUT YOU MAY SKIP ANY QUESTION YOU DO NOT WISH TO ANSWER.

EB001
1. When do you expect to graduate from high school? (MARK ONE)
○

- I will leave high school before I graduate ○
- Now through June 1980 ○
- July or August 1980 ○
- September 1980 through January 1981 ○
- February through June 1981 ○
- After June 1981 ○

BB002
2. Which of the following best describes your present high school program? (MARK ONE)
○

- General ○
- Academic or college preparatory ○
- Vocational (Occupational preparation)
  - Agricultural occupations ○
  - Business or office occupations ○
  - Distributive education ○
  - Health occupations ○
  - Home economics occupations ○
  - Technical occupations ○
  - Trade or industrial occupations ○

3. How often has each of the following been used in the courses you are taking this year? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Never	Seldom	Fairly often	Frequently
EB003A	a.	Listening to the teacher's lecture	○	○	○	○
EB003B	b.	Participating in student-centered discussions	○	○	○	○
EB003C	c.	Working on a project or in a laboratory	○	○	○	○
EB003D	d.	Writing essays, themes, poetry, or stories	○	○	○	○
EB003E	e.	Having individualized instruction (small groups or one-to-one with a teacher)	○	○	○	○
EB003F	f.	Using teaching machines or computer-assisted instructions	○	○	○	○

4. Starting with the beginning of the tenth grade and through the end of this school year how much course work will you have taken in each of the following subjects?

○

Count only courses that meet at least three times (or three periods) a week. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE) .

			None	1/2 year	1 year	1 1/2 years	2 years	2 1/2 years	3 years	More than 3 years
EB004A	a.	Mathematics	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004B	b.	English or literature	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004C	c.	French	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004D	d.	German	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004E	e.	Spanish	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004F	f.	History or social studies	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004G	g.	Science	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004H	h.	Business, office, or sales	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004I	i.	Trade and industry	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004J	j.	Technical courses	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB004K	k.	Other vocational courses	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

5. Which of the following courses have you taken, counting the courses you are taking this semester? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Yes, have taken	No, have not taken
EB005A	a.	First-year algebra	○	○
EB005B	b.	Second-year algebra	○	○
EB005C	c.	Geometry	○	○
EB005D	d.	Trigonometry	○	○
EB005E	e.	Calculus	○	○
EB005F	f.	Physics	○	○
EB005G	g.	Chemistry	○	○

6. Have you taken any high school courses in the following areas which have equipped you for a beginning job in that area? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Yes	No
BB006A	a.	Agriculture, including horticulture	○	○
BB006B	b.	Auto mechanics	○	○
BB006C	c.	Commercial arts	○	○
BB006D	d.	Computer programming or computer operations	○	○
	e.	Construction trades:		
BB006E1		1. Carpentry, cabinet making, or millwork	○	○
BB006E2		2. Electrical	○	○
BB006E3		3. Masonry	○	○
BB006E4		4. Plumbing	○	○
BB006F	f.	Cosmetology, hairdressing, or barbering	○	○
BB006G	g.	Drafting	○	○
BB006H	h.	Electronics	○	○
BB006I	i.	Home economics, including dietetics and child care	○	○
BB006J	j.	Machine shop	○	○
BB006K	k.	Medical or dental assisting	○	○
BB006L	l.	Practical nursing	○	○
BB006M	m.	Quantity food occupations	○	○
BB006N	n.	Sales or merchandising	○	○
BB006O	o.	Secretarial, stenographic, typing, or other office work	○	○
BB006P	p.	Welding	○	○
EB006Q	q.	Other	○	○

BB007
7. **Which of the following best describes your grades so far in high school? (MARK ONE)**

Mostly A (a numerical average of 90-100) ....○
About half A and half B (85-89) ....○
Mostly B (80-84) ....○
About half B and half C (75-79) ....○
Mostly C (70-74) ....○
About half C and half D (65-69) ....○
Mostly D (60-64) ....○
Mostly below D (below 60) ....○

8. **For each of the high school subjects listed below, mark an oval for each statement that applies to you. (MARK ALL THAT APPLY FOR EACH SUBJECT)**

A. Mathematics
BB008AA a. I got mostly A's and B's in this subject .... ○
BB008AB b. It will be useful in my future .... ○
BB008AC c. It was interesting to me .... ○
BB008AD d. Took no mathematics courses .... ○

B. English or literature
BB008BA a. I got mostly A's and B's in this subject .... ○
BB008BB b. It will be useful in my future .... ○
BB008BC c. It was interesting to me .... ○
BB008BD d. Took no English or literature courses .... ○

C. Business, office, or sales
BB008CA a. I got mostly A's and B's in this subject .... ○
BB008CB b. It will be useful in my future .... ○
BB008CC c. It was interesting to me .... ○
BB008CD d. Took no business courses .... ○

D. Trade or industry
BB008DA a. I got mostly A's and B's in this subject .... ○
BB008DB b. It will be useful in my future .... ○
BB008DC c. It was interesting to me .... ○
BB008DD d. Took no trade or industrial courses .... ○

9. **Have you taken any of the following tests this year, or last year (or both)? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

		Yes, both this year and last year	Yes, this year	Yes, last year	No, did not take
EB009A	a. College Board SAT test	○	○	○	○
EB009B	b. ACT tests	○	○	○	○
EB009C	c. Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB)	○	○	○	○

EB010
10. **When did you begin going to this school? (MARK ONE)**

Before 9th grade ....○
Beginning of 9th grade ....○
During the 9th grade ....○
Beginning of 10th grade ....○
During the 10th grade ....○
Beginning or during 11th grade ....○
Beginning or during 12th grade ....○

11. Have you ever been in any of the following kinds of courses or programs in high school? (MARK
○ ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			No	Yes
BB011A	a.	Remedial English (sometimes called basic or essential	○	○
BB011B	b.	Remedial Mathematics (sometimes called basic or essential)	○	○
BB011C	c.	Advanced or honors program in English	○	○
BB011D	d.	Advanced or honors program in Mathematics	○	○
BB011E	e.	Bilingual or bicultural program	○	○
BB011F	f.	Family life or sex education	○	○
BB011G	g.	Alcohol or drug abuse education	○	○
BB011H	h.	Special program for the educationally handicapped	○	○
BB011I	i.	Special program for the physically handicapped	○	○

EB012
12. During this school year about how much of your regular school day have you spent in course work at another school—averaged out over the school year? (MARK ONE)

None ○
About one period a day ○
More than one period but less than half a day ○
About half a day ○
More than half of the school day ○

EB013
13. Some students spend part of the school day in programs outside of any school in some kind of work or community service setting. Averaged over this school year, about how much of your school day have you spent in programs held someplace other than at a school? (MARK ONE)

None ○
About one period a day ○
More than one period but less than half a day ○
About half a day ○
More than half of the school day ○

14. Have you ever heard of or participated in any of the following high school educational
○ programs? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Never heard of this program	Have heard of this program but have not participated	Have participated in this program
BB014A	a.	Cooperative Vocational Education Program (Co-op Program)	○	○	○
BB014B	b.	High School Vocational Education Work-Study Program	○	○	○
BB014C	c.	Talent Search	○	○	○
BB014D	d.	Upward Bound	○	○	○
BB014E	e.	Continuation High School	○	○	○
BB014F	f.	Alternative High School	○	○	○
BB014G	g.	Special School for pregnant girls or mothers	○	○	○
BB014H	h.	CETA Work Programs (such as the Youth Employment and Training Program or the Conservation Corps)	○	○	○
BB014I	i.	Junior ROTC	○	○	○

BB015
15. Approximately what is the average amount of time you spend on homework a week? (MARK ONE)

No homework is ever assigned ○
I have homework, but I don't do it ○
Less than 1 hour a week ○
Between 1 and 3 hours a week ○
More than 3 hours, less than 5 hours a week ○
Between 5 and 10 hours a week ○
More than 10 hours a week ○

BB016
16. Between the beginning of school last fall and Christmas vacation, about how many days were
○ you absent from school for any reason, not counting illness? (MARK ONE)

None ○
1 or 2 days ○
3 or 4 days ○
5 to 10 days ○
11 to 15 days ○
16 to 20 days ○
21 or more ○

BB017
17. Between the beginning of school last fall and Christmas vacation, about how many days were
○ you late to school? (MARK ONE)

None ○
1 or 2 days ○
3 or 4 days ○
5 to 10 days ○
11 to 15 days ○
16 to 20 days ○
21 or more ○

BB018
18. How old were you when you first worked for pay, not counting work around the house? (MARK ONE)

11 or younger ○
12 ○
13 ○
14 ○
15 ○
16 ○
17 ○
18 ○
19 ○
20 or older ○
Never have worked for pay ○

BB019

19. Did you do any work for pay last week, not counting work around the house? (MARK ONE)

Yes ○
No ○

BB020

20. Were you looking for a job last week? (MARK ONE)

Yes ○
No ○

BB021

21. When was the most recent time you worked for pay, not counting work around the house? (MARK ONE)

Never worked for pay ○

Last week ○
Within the past month, but not last week ○
Within the past 3 months ○
Since school started last fall ○
Last summer ○
Before that ○

BB022

22. How many hours do/did you work a week on your current or most recent job? (MARK ONE)

None, never worked for pay ○

1-4 hours per week ○
5-14 hours per week ○
15-21 hours per week ○
22-29 hours per week ○
30-34 hours per week ○
35 hours or more per week ○

BB023

23. How much do/did you earn per hour on that job (your current or most recent job)? (MARK ONE)

Have not worked for pay ○

Less than $1.50 per hour ○
$1.50 to $1.99 ○
$2.00 to $2.49 ○
$2.50 to $2.89 ○
$2.90 to $3.09 ○
$3.10 to $3.49 ○
$3.50 to $3.99 ○
$4.00 per hour or more ○

BB024

24. Which of the job categories below comes closest to the kind of work you do/did for pay on your current or most recent job? (If more than one kind of work, choose the one which paid you the most per week.) (MARK ONE)

Have not worked for pay .... ○

Lawn work or odd jobs .... ○
Waiter or waitress in a restaurant or drive-in .... ○
Babysitting or child care .... ○
Farm or agricultural work .... ○
Factory work, unskilled or semi-skilled .... ○
Skilled trade .... ○
Other manual labor .... ○
Store clerk or salesperson .... ○
Office or clerical .... ○
Hospital or health .... ○
Other .... ○

BB025

25. Is your current job (or was your most recent job) a CETA-sponsored job or another job supported by government funds, or is it for a private company? (MARK ONE)

Have not worked for pay .... ○

CETA-sponsored youth employment job .... ○
Other government-funded job .... ○
Private company .... ○
Other .... ○
Don't know .... ○

BB026

26. At your current or most recent job, about what proportion of the time is (was) spent on training (not on just doing your regular work on the job)? (MARK ONE)

Have not worked for pay .... ○

Almost no time in training .... ○
Less than one-quarter of the time .... ○
About a quarter of the time .... ○
About half of the time .... ○
More than half the time in training .... ○

27. In describing your present or most recent job, would you say it is... (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Yes	No	Never worked
BB027A	a. A place where people goof off?	○	○	○
BB027B	b. Something you do just for the money?	○	○	○
BB027C	c. More enjoyable than school?	○	○	○
BB027D	d. Encourages good work habits?	○	○	○
BB027E	e. More important for you than school?	○	○	○

BB028

28. What is the lowest hourly wage you would be willing to accept for a job while you are still in high school? (MARK ONE)

Below $1.50 ○
$1.50 ○
$1.75 ○
$2.00 ○
$2.25 ○
$2.50 ○
$2.75 ○
$3.00 ○
$3.25 ○
$3.50 ○
$3.75 ○
$4.00 per hour or more ○
Would not accept any job ○

BB029

29. What is the lowest hourly wage you would be willing to accept for a job after you graduate from high school? (MARK ONE)

Below $1.50 ○
$1.50 ○
$1.75 ○
$2.00 ○
$2.25 ○
$2.50 ○
$2.75 ○
$3.00 ○
$3.25 ○
$3.50 ○
$3.75 ○
$4.00 per hour or more ○

EB030

30. During last summer (summer of 1979), about how many hours per week did you work for pay outside your own home? (MARK ONE)

None ○
1-4 hours per week ○
5-14 hours per week ○
15-21 hours per week ○
22-29 hours per week ○
30-34 hours per week ○
35 hours or more per week ○

BB031

31. During the school year before this one, about how many hours per week on the average did you work for pay outside your own home? (MARK ONE)

None ○
1-4 hours per week ○
5-14 hours per week ○
15-21 hours per week ○
22-29 hours per week ○
30-34 hours per week ○
35 hours or more per week ○

32. Have you participated in any of the following types of activities either in or out of school this year? (MAKE ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Have not participated	Have participated actively (but not as a leader or officer)	Have participated as a leader or officer
EB032A	a. Varsity athletic teams	○	○	○
BB032B	b. Other athletic teams - in or out of school	○	○	○
BB032C	c. Cheer leaders, pep club, majorettes	○	○	○
BB032D	d. Debating or drama	○	○	○
BB032E	e. Band or orchestra	○	○	○
BB032F	f. Chorus or dance	○	○	○
BB032G	g. Hobby clubs such as photography, model building, hot rod, electronics, crafts	○	○	○
EB032H	h. Honorary clubs, such as Beta Club or National Honor Society	○	○	○
EB032I	i. School newspaper, magazine, yearbook, annual	○	○	○
BB032J	j. School subject-matter clubs, such as science, history, language, business, art	○	○	○
EB032K	k. Student council, student government, political club	○	○	○
BB032L	l. Vocational education clubs, such as Future Homemakers, Teachers, Farmers of America, DECA, FBLA, or VICA	○	○	○
BB032M	m. Youth organizations in the community, such as Scouts, Y, etc.	○	○	○
BB032N	n. Church activities, including youth groups	○	○	○
BB032O	o. Junior Achievement	○	○	○

EB033

33. In the past year, have you tried to enlist into any branch of the Armed Services? (MARK ONE)

Yes ○
No, but I plan to try to enlist soon ○
No, and I don't plan to enlist ○

EB034

34. Have you been accepted by or sworn into any branch of the Armed Services? (MARK ONE)

No ○
Yes, and I will enter basic training later on this year in the. . .
  Army ○
  Navy ○
  Air Force ○
  Marine Corps ○
  Coast Guard ○
Yes, but I decided not to enter any service ○
I have not heard yet ○

35. How much do you agree with each of the following statements about your high school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Agree strongly	Agree somewhat	Disagree somewhat	Disagree strongly	Does not apply
EB035A	a. School should have placed more emphasis on basic academic subjects (math, science, English, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○
EB035B	b. School should have placed more emphasis on vocational and technical programs	○	○	○	○	○
EB035C	c. School did not offer enough practical work experience	○	○	○	○	○
EB035D	d. School provided me with counseling that will help me continue my education	○	○	○	○	○
EB035E	e. School provided me with counseling that will help me find employment	○	○	○	○	○

36. Which of the following people live in the same household with you? (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)

○

BB036A a. I live alone ○
BB036B b. Father ○
BB036C c. Other male guardian (step-father or foster father) ○
BB036D d. Mother ○
BB036E e. Other female guardian (step-mother or foster mother) ○
BB036F f. Brother(s) and/or sister(s) (including step- or half-) ○
BB036G g. Grandparent(s) ○
BB036H h. My husband/wife ○
BB036I i. My child or my children ○
BB036J j. Other relative(s) (children or adults) ○
BB036K k. Non-relative(s) (children or adults) ○

37. Did your mother (stepmother or female guardian) usually work during the following periods of your life? (MAKE ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Did not work	Worked part-time	Worked full-time	Don't know	Does not apply
BB037A	a. When you were in high school	○	○	○	○	○
BB037B	b. When you were in elementary school	○	○	○	○	○
BB037C	c. Before you went to elementary school	○	○	○	○	○

The next questions ask about your parents or guardians. Please answer for those parents with whom you are now living. For example, if you have both a natural father and a step-father or other male guardian, answer for the male who lives in the same household with you. If you are living with neither, use the category—'Do not live with father (stepfather or male guardian).

Please answer for the same persons in later questions that ask about your father or your mother.

BB038

38. ○ Please describe below the job most recently held by your father (stepfather or male guardian), even if he is not working at present.

(WRITE IN) ______________________________

Which of the categories below comes closest to describing that job? (MARK ONE)

- Do not live with father (stepfather or male guardian) ○
- CLERICAL such as bank teller, bookkeeper, secretary, typist, mail carrier, ticket agent ○
- CRAFTSMAN such as baker, automobile mechanic, machinist, painter, plumber, telephone installer, carpenter ○
- FARMER, FARM MANAGER ○
- HOMEMAKER OR HOUSEWIFE ONLY ○
- LABORER such as construction worker, car washer, sanitary worker, farm laborer ○
- MANAGER, ADMINISTRATOR such as sales manager, office manager, school administrator, buyer, restaurant manager, government official ○
- MILITARY such as career officer, enlisted man or woman in the Armed Forces ○
- OPERATIVE such as meat cutter, assembler, machine operator, welder, taxicab, bus, or truck driver ○
- PROFESSIONAL such as accountant, artist, registered nurse, engineer, librarian, writer, social worker, actor, actress, athlete, politician, but not including school teacher ○
- PROFESSIONAL such as clergyman, dentist, physician, lawyer, scientist, college teacher ○
- PROPRIETOR OR OWNER such as owner of a small business, contractor, restaurant owner ○
- PROTECTIVE SERVICE such as detective, police officer or guard, sheriff, fire fighter ○
- SALES such as salesperson, advertising or insurance agent, real estate broker ○
- SCHOOL TEACHER such as elementary or secondary ○
- SERVICE such as barber, beautician, practical nurse, private household worker, janitor, waiter ○
- TECHNICAL such as draftsman, medical or dental technician, computer programmer ○
- Never worked ○
- Don't know ○

BB039

39. ○ What was the highest level of education your father (stepfather or male guardian) completed? (MARK ONE)

- Do not live with father (stepfather or male guardian) ○
- Less than high school graduation ○
- High school graduation only ○
- Vocational, trade, or business school after high school
  - Less than two years ○
  - Two years or more ○
- College program
  - Less than two years of college ○
  - Two or more years of college (including two-year degree) ○
  - Finished college (four- or five-year degree) ○
  - Master's degree or equivalent ○
  - Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree ○
- Don't know ○

BB040

40. **How much of his life has your father (stepfather or male guardian) spent in the United States? (MARK ONE)**

All or almost all .... ○
More than 20 years, but not all .... ○
About 11-20 years .... ○
About 6-10 years .... ○
About 1-5 years .... ○
Don't know. .... ○

BB041

41. ○ **Please describe below the job most recently held by your mother (stepmother or female guardian) even if she is not working at present.**

(WRITE IN) ____

Which of the categories below comes closest to describing that job? (MARK ONE)

Do not live with mother (stepmother or female guardian) .... ○
CLERICAL such as bank teller, bookkeeper, secretary, typist, mail carrier, ticket agent ...... ○
CRAFTSMAN such as baker, automobile mechanic, machinist, painter, plumber, telephone installer, carpenter .... ○
FARMER, FARM MANAGER .... ○
HOMEMAKER OR HOUSEWIFE ONLY .... ○
LABORER such as construction worker, car washer, sanitary worker, farm laborer .... ○
MANAGER, ADMINISTRATOR such as sales manager, office manager, school administrator, buyer, restaurant manager, government official .... ○
MILITARY such as career officer, enlisted man or woman in the Armed Forces .... ○
OPERATIVE such as meat cutter, assembler, machine operator, welder, taxicab, bus, or truck driver .... ○
PROFESSIONAL such as accountant, artist, registered nurse, engineer, librarian, writer, social worker, actor actress, athlete, politican, but not including school teacher .... ○
PROFESSIONAL such as clergyman, dentist, physician, lawyer, scientist, college teacher .... ○
PROPRIETOR OR OWNER such as owner of a small business, contractor, restaurant owner .... ○
PROTECTIVE SERVICE such as detective, police officer or guard, sheriff, fire fighter .... ○
SALES such as salesperson, advertising or insurance agent, real estate broker .... ○
SCHOOL TEACHER such as elementary or secondary .... ○
SERVICE such as barber, beautician, practical nurse, private household worker janitor, waiter .... ○
TECHNICAL such as draftsman, medical or dental technician, computer programmer .... ○
Never worked .... ○
Don't know .... ○

BB042

42. **What was the highest level of education your mother (stepmother or female guardian) completed? (MARK ONE)**

○

- Do not live with mother (stepmother or female guardian) ○
- Less than high school graduation ○
- High school graduation only ○
- Vocational, trade or business school after high school
  - Less than two years ○
  - Two years or more ○
- College program
  - Less than two years of college ○
  - Two or more years of college (including two-year degree) ○
  - Finished college (four- or five-year degree) ○
  - Master's degree or equivalent ○
  - Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree ○
- Don't know ○

BB043

43. **How much of her life has your mother (stepmother or female guardian) spent in the United States? (MARK ONE)**

- All or almost all ○
- More than 20 years, but not all ○
- About 11-20 years ○
- About 6-10 years ○
- About 1-5 years ○
- Don't know. ○

BB044

44. **Were you born in the United States? (MARK ONE)**

- Yes ○
- No ○

BB045

45. **How much of your life have you spent in the United States? (MARK ONE)**

- All or almost all ○
- More than 10 years, but not all ○
- About 6-10 years ○
- About 1-5 years ○

B

46. **Are the following statements about your parents true or false? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

		True	False	Does not apply
BB046A	a. My mother (stepmother or female guardian) keeps close track of how well I am doing in school	○	○	○
BB046B	b. My father (stepfather or male guardian) keeps close track of how well I am doing in school	○	○	○
BB046C	c. My parents (or guardians) almost always know where I am and what I'm doing	○	○	○

47. How often do you spend time on the following activities outside of school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Rarely or never	Less than once a week	Once or twice a week	Every day or almost every day
BB047A	a.	Visiting with friends at a local gathering place	○	○	○	○
BB047B	b.	Reading for pleasure	○	○	○	○
BB047C	c.	Going out on dates	○	○	○	○
BB047D	d.	Just driving or riding around (alone or with friends)	○	○	○	○
BB047E	e.	Talking with friends on the telephone	○	○	○	○
BB047F	f.	Thinking or daydreaming alone	○	○	○	○
BB047G	g.	Talking with your mother or father about personal experiences	○	○	○	○
BB047H	h.	Reading the front page of the newspaper	○	○	○	○

BB048

48. During week days about how many hours per day do you watch TV? (MARK ONE)

Don't watch TV during week	○
Less than 1 hour	○
1 hour or more, less than 2	○
2 hours or more, less than 3	○
3 hours or more, less than 4	○
4 hours or more, less than 5	○
5 or more	○

49. How much has each of the following persons influenced your plans for after high school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Not at all	Somewhat	A great deal
EB049A	a.	Your father	○	○	○
EB049B	b.	Your mother	○	○	○
EB049C	c.	A guidance counselor	○	○	○
EB049D	d.	Teachers	○	○	○
EB049E	e.	Friends or relatives about your own age	○	○	○
EB049F	f.	Military recruiters	○	○	○
EB049G	g.	College recruiters	○	○	○

50. What do the following people think you ought to do after high school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Go to college	Get a full-time job	Enter a trade school or an apprenticeship	Enter military service	They don't care	I don't know	Does not apply
BB050A	a.	Your father	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB050B	b.	Your mother	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB050C	c.	A guidance counselor	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB050D	d.	Teachers	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB050E	e.	Friends or relatives about your own age	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

51. Please think of your closest friend in this school who is a senior. As far as you know, are the following statements true or false for him/her? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			True	False
BB051A	a.	Gets good grades	○	○
BB051B	b.	Is interested in school	○	○
BB051C	c.	Attends classes regularly	○	○
BB051D	d.	Plans to go to college	○	○
BB051E	e.	Is popular with others	○	○

52. How much has each of the following interfered with your education at this school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Not at all	Somewhat	A great deal
EB052A	a.	Courses are too hard	○	○	○
EB052B	b.	Find it hard to adjust to school routine	○	○	○
EB052C	c.	Poor teaching	○	○	○
EB052D	d.	Poor study habits	○	○	○
EB052E	e.	Courses are too easy	○	○	○

53. Please rate your school on each of the following aspects. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Don't know
BB053A	a.	Condition of buildings and classrooms	○	○	○	○	○
BB053B	b.	Library facilities	○	○	○	○	○
BB053C	c.	Quality of academic instruction	○	○	○	○	○
BB053D	d.	Reputation in the community	○	○	○	○	○
BB053E	e.	Teacher interest in students	○	○	○	○	○
BB053F	f.	Effective discipline	○	○	○	○	○
BB053G	g.	Fairness of discipline	○	○	○	○	○
BB053H	h.	School spirit	○	○	○	○	○

BB054

54. **Does your high school have a minimum competency or proficiency test—that is, a special test that all students must pass in order to get a high school diploma? (MARK ONE)**

Yes .... ○
No .... ○
Don't know ...... ○

BB055

55. **Have you taken a minimum competency or proficiency test yet? (MARK ONE)**

School does not have such a test .... ○

Yes .... ○
No .... ○
Don't know .... ○

BB056

56. **Did you pass or fail or don't you know the results yet? (MARK ONE)**

Did not take such a test .... ○

Passed .... ○
Failed .... ○
Don't know results yet .... ○

57. **How important is each of the following to you in your life? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

		Not important	Somewhat important	Very important
BB057A	a. Being successful in my line of work	○	○	○
BB057B	b. Finding the right person to marry and having a happy family life	○	○	○
BB057C	c. Having lots of money	○	○	○
BB057D	d. Having strong friendships	○	○	○
BB057E	e. Being able to find steady work	○	○	○
BB057F	f. Being a leader in my community	○	○	○
BB057G	g. Being able to give my children better opportunities than I've had	○	○	○
BB057H	h. Living close to parents and relatives	○	○	○
BB057I	i. Getting away from this area of the country	○	○	○
BB057J	j. Working to correct social and economic inequalities	○	○	○
BB057K	k. Having children	○	○	○
BB057L	l. Having leisure time to enjoy my own interests	○	○	○

58. How do you feel about each of the following statements? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Agree strongly	Agree	Disagree	Disagree strongly	No opinion
BB058A	a.	I take a positive attitude toward myself	○	○	○	○	○
BB058B	b.	Good luck is more important than hard work for success	○	○	○	○	○
BB058C	c.	I feel I am a person of worth, on an equal plane with others	○	○	○	○	○
BB058D	d.	I am able to do things as well as most other people	○	○	○	○	○
BB058E	e.	Every time I try to get ahead, something or somebody stops me	○	○	○	○	○
BB058F	f.	Planning only makes a person unhappy, since plans hardly ever work out anyway	○	○	○	○	○
BB058G	g.	People who accept their condition in life are happier than those who try to change things	○	○	○	○	○
BB058H	h.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	○	○	○	○	○
BB058I	i.	What happens to me is my own doing	○	○	○	○	○
BB058J	j.	At times I think I am no good at all	○	○	○	○	○
BB058K	k.	When I make plans, I am almost certain I can make them work	○	○	○	○	○
BB058L	l.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of	○	○	○	○	○

59. Are the following statements about your experiences in school true or false? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			True	False
BB059A	a.	I am satisfied with the way my education is going	○	○
BB059B	b.	I have had disciplinary problems in school during the last year	○	○
BB059C	c.	I am interested in school	○	○
BB059D	d.	I have been suspended or put on probation in school	○	○
BB059E	e.	Every once in a while I cut a class	○	○
BB059F	f.	I don't feel safe at this school	○	○

BB060

60. During the past month, have you felt so sad, or had so many problems, that you wondered if anything was worthwhile? (MARK ONE)

Yes, more than once	○
Yes, once	○
No	○

349

61. **Are the following statements about yourself true or false? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

			True	False
BB061A	a.	I have been in serious trouble with the law	○	○
BB061B	b.	I am overweight	○	○
BB061C	c.	Others think of me as physically unattractive	○	○
BB061D	d.	I am popular with other students in my class	○	○
BB061E	e.	I like to work hard in school	○	○
BB061F	f.	I enjoy working for pay	○	○
BB061G	g.	I will be disappointed if I don't graduate from college	○	○

BB062

62. **Write in here the name of the job or occupation that you expect or plan to have when you are 30 years old. Even if you are not at all sure, write in your best guess.**

○

(WRITE IN) ______________________________

Which of the categories below comes closest to describing that job? (MARK ONE)

CLERICAL such as bank teller, bookkeeper, secretary, typist, mail carrier, ticket agent ○
CRAFTSMAN such as baker, automobile mechanic, machinist, painter, plumber, telephone installer, carpenter ○
FARMER, FARM MANAGER ○
HOMEMAKER OR HOUSEWIFE ONLY ○
LABORER such as construction worker, car washer, sanitary worker, farm laborer ○
MANAGER, ADMINISTRATOR such as sales manager, office manager, school administrator, buyer, restaurant manager, government official ○
MILITARY such as career officer, enlisted man or woman in the Armed Forces ○
OPERATIVE such as meat cutter, assembler, machine operator, welder, taxicab, bus, or truck driver ○
PROFESSIONAL such as accountant, artist, registered nurse, engineer, librarian, writer, social worker, actor, actress, athlete, politician, but not including school teacher ○
PROFESSIONAL such as clergyman, dentist, physician, lawyer, scientist, college teacher ○
PROPRIETOR OR OWNER such as owner of a small business, contractor, restaurant owner ○
PROTECTIVE SERVICE such as detective, police officer or guard, sheriff, fire fighter ○
SALES such as salesperson, advertising or insurance agent, real estate broker ○
SCHOOL TEACHER such as elementary or secondary ○
SERVICE such as barber, beautician, practical nurse, private household worker, janitor, waiter ○
TECHNICAL such as draftsman, medical or dental technician, computer programmer ○
NOT WORKING ○

63. **How important was each of the following factors in determining the kind of work you plan to be doing for most of your life? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

		Not important	Somewhat important	Very important
EB063A	a. Previous work experience in the area	○	○	○
EB063B	b. Good income to start or within a few years	○	○	○
EB063C	c. Job security and permanence	○	○	○
EB063D	d. Work that seems important and interesting to me	○	○	○
EB063E	e. Freedom to make my own decisions	○	○	○
EB063F	f. Meeting and working with sociable friendly people	○	○	○

EB064
64. **Would you be willing to move from this town or city in order to get a job you want? (MARK ONE)**

- Yes, I would prefer to move away ○
- Yes, it makes no difference to me ○
- Yes, but I would prefer to find work in this community ○
- No, I am not willing to move ○

BB065
65. **As things stand now, how far in school do you think you will get? (MARK ONE)**

○

- Less than high school graduation ○
- High school graduation only ○
- Vocational, trade, or business school after high school
  - Less than two years ○
  - Two years or more ○
- College program
  - Less than two years of college ○
  - Two or more years of college (including two-year degree) ○
  - Finish college (four- or five-year degree) ○
  - Master's degree or equivalent ○
  - Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree ○

BB066
66. **How far in school do you think your mother wants you to go? (MARK ONE)**

- Less than high school graduation ○
- High school graduation only ○
- Vocational, trade, or business school after high school
  - Less than two years ○
  - Two years or more ○
- College program
  - Less than two years of college ○
  - Two or more years of college (including two-year degree) ○
  - Finish college (four- or five-year degree) ○
  - Master's degree or equivalent ○
  - Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree ○
- Don't know ○

BB067
67. **What is the lowest level of education you would be satisfied with? (MARK ONE)**

Less than high school graduation .... ○
High school graduation only .... ○
○
Vocational, trade, or business school after high school .... { Less than two years .... ○
{ Two years or more .... ○

College program ....
{ Less than two years of college .... ○
{ Two or more years of college (including two-year degree) .... ○
{ Finished college (four- or five-year degree) .... ○
{ Master's degree or equivalent .... ○
{ Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree .... ○

68. **Did you expect to go to college when you were in the following grades? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

	When you were . . .	Yes	No	Was not sure	Hadn't thought about it
BB068A	a. In the 8th grade?	○	○	○	○
BB068B	b. In the 9th grade?	○	○	○	○
BB068C	c. In the 10th grade?	○	○	○	○
BB068D	d. In the 11th grade?	○	○	○	○

BB069
69. **Whatever your plans, do you think you have the ability to complete college? (MARK ONE)**

Yes, definitely .... ○
Yes, probably .... ○
Not sure .... ○
I doubt it .... ○
Definitely not .... ○

BB070
70. **If there were a program of compulsory two-year service after high school, with options of military service or community service as listed below, what would you most likely do? (MARK ONE)**

Military service with educational benefits afterwards (such as scholarships for veterans) .... ○
Public service (such as hospitals, Peace Corps, forest service) .... ○
I am undecided .... ○
I would try to avoid either option .... ○

BB071

71. What is the one thing that most likely will take the largest share of your time in the year after ○ you leave high school? (MARK ONE)

- Working full time ○
- Entering an apprenticeship or on-the-job training program ○
- Going into regular military service (or service academy) ○
- Being a full-time homemaker ○
- Taking vocational or technical courses at a trade or business school full time or part time ○
- Taking academic courses at a junior or community college full time or part time ○
- Taking technical or vocational subjects at a junior or community college full time or part time ○
- Attending a four-year college or university full time or part time ○
- Working part time, but not attending school or college ○
- Other (travel, take a break, no plans) ○

72. What other things do you now plan to do the year after you leave high school? (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)

BB072A a. Work ○
BB072B b. Enter an apprenticeship or on-the-job training program ○
BB072C c. Go into regular military service (or service academy) ○
BB072D d. Be a homemaker ○
BB072E e. Take vocational or technical courses at a trade or business school ○
BB072F f. Take academic courses at a junior or community college ○
BB072G g. Take technical or vocational subjects at a junior or community college ○
BB072H h. Attend a four-year college or university ○
BB072I i. Other (travel, take a break, no plans) ○

EB073

73. If you plan to work full time after high school, do you have a definite job lined up for you after you leave high school? (MARK ONE)

- Yes, I'll continue in a job I now have ○
- Yes, I have a new job lined up ○
- No, but I've inquired at employment agencies or potential employers, looked in the newspapers, etc. ○
- No, I haven't done anything yet to get a job ○
- Do not plan to work full time after high school ○

EB074

74. **If you plan to work full time next year and can't find a job after six months, what one thing would you probably decide to do? (MARK ONE)**

Don't plan to work full time next year ○
Keep on looking for a job around here ○
Move to a different area and look for jobs there ○
Work part time but not attend school or college ○
Enter an apprenticeship or on-the-job training program ○
Go into regular military service (or service academy) ○
Become a full-time homemaker ○
Take vocational or technical courses at a trade or business school full time or part time ○
Take academic courses at a junior or community college full time or part time ○
Take technical or vocational subjects at a junior or community college full time or part time ○
Attend a four-year college or university full time or part time ○
Other (travel, or take a break) ○
Don't know ○

BB075

75. **About how much money do you expect to earn from work in the year beginning July 1980 and ending June 1981? (MARK ONE)**

None ○
Less than $1,000 ○
$1,000 to $2,999 ○
$3,000 to $4,999 ○
$5,000 to $6,999 ○
$7,000 to $8,999 ○
$9,000 to $10,999 ○
$11,000 to $12,999 ○
$13,000 to $14,999 ○
$15,000 or more ○

EB076

76. **About how much money do you expect to spend on living expenses (such as room and board and clothing) next year? Include expenses even if they will be paid by a scholarship or loan. (But don't include tuition or other schooling expenses.) (MARK ONE)**

Almost none—I plan to live at home ○
None, for other reasons ○
Less than $1,000 ○
$1,000 to $1,999 ○
$2,000 to $2,999 ○
$3,000 to $3,999 ○
$4,000 to $4,999 ○
$5,000 to $6,999 ○
$7,000 to $10,000 ○
More than $10,000 ○

EB077

77. About how much money do you expect to spend on schooling expenses next year? Include expenses for fees, tuition, books, and so on, even if they will be paid by your parents, a scholarship, or a loan. (But don't include the costs of room and board, or other living expenses.) (MARK ONE)

- None .... ○
- Less than $500 .... ○
- $500 to $999 .... ○
- $1,000 to $1,999 .... ○
- $2,000 to $4,000 .... ○
- More than $4,000 .... ○

BB078

78. Assume you are in this situation. You want to go to college next year, but the college you want to attend will cost $1,500 more than you and your family and any scholarship funds can provide. Which one of these would you most likely do? (MARK ONE)

- Try to get a loan .... ○
- Try to get a part-time job .... ○
- Choose a college that costs less .... ○
- Go to college later when funds are available .... ○
- Don't know .... ○

79. How do you plan to pay for the living expenses and schooling expenses (if any) you may have next year? For each source listed below, indicate how much money you expect to receive in the year beginning July 1980 and ending June 1981. If you are not sure, make your best guess. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

○

		None	Under $300	$300 to $599	$600 to $1,199	$1,200 to $2,000	Over $2,000
	A. My family:						
EB079AA	a. Parents	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079AB	b. Husband or wife	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079AC	c. Other relatives	○	○	○	○	○	○
	B. Myself:						
EB079BA	a. Summer earnings, 1980	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079BB	b. Earnings, Sept. 1980-June 1981	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079BC	c. Savings	○	○	○	○	○	○
	C. Other sources:						
EB079CA	a. A state scholarship or grant	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079CB	b. A federal scholarship or grant	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079CC	c. Other scholarship or grant	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079CD	d. A state loan	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079CE	e. A federal loan	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079CF	f. Other loan	○	○	○	○	○	○
EB079CG	g. Social Security or Veterans Administration benefits	○	○	○	○	○	○

EB080

80. Where do you plan to live next year? (MARK ONE)

- At home .... ○
- In a school dormitory or residence hall .... ○
- In a place of my own or with a room-mate .... ○
- Sharing a place with more than one other person .... ○
- In a military barracks .... ○

81. At what age do you expect to . . . (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH QUESTION)

	Don't expect to do this	Have already done this	Under 18	Age in years:												
				18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30 or more
BB081A a. Get married?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB081B b. Have your first child?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB081C c. Start your first regular (not summer) job?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB081D d. Live in your own home or apartment?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB081E e. Finish your full-time education?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

BB082
82. How many children altogether do you eventually expect to have? (MARK ONE)

None .... ○
One .... ○
Two .... ○
Three .... ○
Four or more .... ○

Background information . . .

BB083
83. Sex:
(MARK ONE)

Male .... ○
Female .... ○

BB084
84. Age:
(MARK ONE)

15 or younger	16	17	18	19	20	21 or older
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

BB085
85. Height:
(MARK THE OVALS WHICH INDICATE YOUR HEIGHT IN FEET AND INCHES)

	3	4	5	6	7
Feet:	○	○	○	○	○

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Inches:	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

BB086

86. Weight:
(MARK THE OVAL THAT INDICATES YOUR WEIGHT)

Less than 100 pounds ....○
101-105 ....○
106-110 ....○
111-115 ....○
116-120 ....○
121-125 ....○
126-130 ....○
131-135 ....○
136-140 ....○
141-145 ....○
146-150 ....○
151-155 ....○
156-160 ....○
161-165 ....○
166-170 ....○
171-175 ....○
176-180 ....○
181-185 ....○
186-190 ....○
191-195 ....○
196-200 ....○
201-205 ....○
206-210 ....○
211-215 ....○
216-220 ....○
221-225 ....○
Over 226 pounds ....○

87. Do you have any of the following conditions? (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)
○

BB087A a. Specific learning disability ....○
BB087B b. Visual handicap ....○
BB087C c. Hard of hearing ....○
BB087D d. Deafness ....○
BB087E e. Speech disability ....○
BB087F f. Orthopedic handicap ....○
BB087G g. Other health impairment ....○

BB088

88. Do you feel that you have a physical condition that limits the kind or amount of work you can do on a job, or affects your chances for more education? (MARK ONE)

No ....○
Yes ....○

BB089

89. **What is your race? (MARK ONE)**

- Black ○
- White ○
- American Indian or Alaskan Native ○
- Asian or Pacific Islander ○
- Other ○

BB090

90. **What is your origin or descent? (If more than one, please mark below the one you consider the most important part of your background.) (MARK ONE)**

HISPANIC OR SPANISH:

- Mexican, Mexican-American, Chicano ○
- Cuban, Cubano ○
- Puerto Rican, Puertorriqueno or Boricua ○
- Other Latin American, Latino, Hispanic, or Spanish descent ○

NON-HISPANIC:

- African:
  - Afro-American ○
  - West Indian or Carribean ○
- Alaskan Native ○
- American Indian ○
- Asian or Pacific Islander:
  - Chinese ○
  - Filipino ○
  - Indian, Pakistani or other South Asian ○
  - Japanese ○
  - Korean ○
  - Vietnamese ○
  - Other Pacific Islander ○
  - Other Asian ○
- European:
  - English or Welsh ○
  - French ○
  - German ○
  - Greek ○
  - Irish ○
  - Italian ○
  - Polish ○
  - Portuguese ○
  - Russian ○
  - Scottish ○
  - Other European ○
- Canadian (French) ○
- Canadian (Other) ○
- United States only ○

Other (WRITE IN) ______________________ ○

NOTE: The following four questions pertain to fundamental freedoms of expression. These and other questions will provide helpful information for the interpretation of survey results. If you have any reservations about answering questions 91, 92, 93 and 94, please remember that you may leave them unanswered.

BB091
91. What is your religious background? (MARK ONE)

Baptist ○
Methodist ○
Lutheran ○
Presbyterian ○
Episcopalian ○
Other Protestant denomination ○
Catholic ○
Other Christian ○
Jewish ○
Other religion ○
None ○

BB092
92. In the past year, about how often have you attended religious services? (MARK ONE)

More than once a week ○
About once a week ○
Two or three times a month ○
About once a month ○
Several times a year or less ○
Not at all ○

BB093
93. Do you think of yourself as a religious person? (MARK ONE)

Yes, very ○
Yes, somewhat ○
No, not at all ○

BB094
94. How would you describe your political beliefs? (MARK ONE)

Conservative or very conservative ○
Moderate ○
Liberal ○
Very liberal or radical ○
None ○
Don't know ○

BB095
95. **Did anyone at home read to you when you were young before you started school? (MARK ONE)**

Never ○
Less than once a month ○
One to four times a month ○
Several times a week ○
Every day ○
Don't remember ○

96. **How many brothers and sisters do you have in each of the age groups below? Please include step-brothers and step-sisters if they live, or have lived, in your home. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

How many brothers and sisters do you have who are . . .	None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five or more
BB096A a. Three or more years older than you	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB096B b. 1-2 years older	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB096C c. Same age as you	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB096D d. 1-2 years younger	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB096E e. Three or more years younger	○	○	○	○	○	○

BB097
97. Do you have a twin brother or twin sister? (MARK ONE)

Yes ○
No ○

EB098
98. **How many of your brothers and sisters will be in college next fall? (MARK ONE)**

I don't have any brothers or sisters .... ○
None .... ○
One .... ○
Two or more .... ○

EB099
99. **How many of your brothers and sisters will be in high school next fall? (MARK ONE)**

I don't have any brothers or sisters .... ○
None .... ○
One .... ○
Two or more .... ○

BB100
100. **American families are divided below into three equal groups according to how much money the family makes in a year. Mark the oval for the group which comes closest to the amount of money your family makes in a year. (MARK ONE)**

1/3 of American families make: $11,999 or less .... ○
1/3 of American families make: $12,000 to $19,999 ...... ○
1/3 of American families make: $20,000 or more .... ○

BB101
101. ○ **This time families are divided into seven groups according to how much money they make in a year. Mark the oval for the group which comes closest to the amount of money your family makes in a year. (MARK ONE)**

$6,999 or less .... ○
$7,000 to $11,999 .... ○
$12,000 to $15,999 .... ○
$16,000 to $19,999 .... ○
$20,000 to $24,999 .... ○
$25,000 to $37,999 .... ○
$38,000 or more .... ○

BB102
102. **Does your family own or rent the house or apartment in which you now live? (MARK ONE)**

Own .... ○
Rent .... ○
Other arrangement .... ○

BB103
103. **How many rooms are there in your home? Count only the rooms your family lives in. Count the kitchen (if separate) but not bathrooms. (MARK ONE)**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 or more
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

104. Which of the following do you have in your home? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Have	Do not have
BB104A	a. A specific place for study	○	○
BB104B	b. A daily newspaper	○	○
BB104C	c. Encyclopedia or other reference books	○	○
BB104D	d. Typewriter	○	○
BB104E	e. Electric dishwasher	○	○
BB104F	f. Two or more cars or trucks that run	○	○
BB104G	g. More than 50 books	○	○
BB104H	h. A room of your own	○	○
BB104I	i. Pocket calculator	○	○

105. When you were in the first, sixth, and ninth grades, about how many of the students in your class were Black? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		None	Few	About half	Most	All
BB105A	a. In my first grade	○	○	○	○	○
BB105B	b. In my sixth grade	○	○	○	○	○
BB105C	c. In my ninth grade	○	○	○	○	○

106. When you were in the first, sixth, and ninth grades, about how many of the students in your class were Hispanic (Mexican, Cuban, Puerto Rican, Latino, or other Spanish descent)? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		None	Few	About half	Most	All
BB106A	a. In my first grade	○	○	○	○	○
BB106B	b. In my sixth grade	○	○	○	○	○
BB106C	c. In my ninth grade	○	○	○	○	○

BB107

107. If you went to college, would it most likely be . . . (MARK ONE)

A four-year college or university .... ○
A two-year junior or community college .... ○

BB108

108. If you went to college would you most likely go to . . . (MARK ONE)

A public college or university .... ○
A private college or university .... ○

BB109

109. If you went to college would you probably go . . . (MARK ONE)

In this state .... ○
In another state .... ○

BB110
110. If you went to college would you probably go . . . (MARK ONE)

Full-time ....○
Part-time ....○

111. How much do you think each of the following kinds of schooling would cost for a year? Just answer about expenses for tuition, fees, books, and so on—not living expenses. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

Schooling expenses would be . . .

	Under $500	$500-$1,000	$1,001-$2,000	$2,001-$3,000	$3,001-$5,000	$5,001-$7,000	Don't know
BB111A a. Cost at a public junior or community college	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB111B b. Cost at a state four-year college or university	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB111C c. Cost at a private four-year college or university	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

EB112
112. Do you plan to go to any vocational or trade school, or enter any apprenticeship program after leaving high school? (MARK ONE)

Yes ....○
No ....○ SKIP TO QUESTION 115

BB113
113. What field will you most likely train for? (MARK ONE)

Agriculture, including horticulture ....○
Auto mechanics ....○
Commercial arts ....○
Computer programming or computer operations ....○
Construction trades:
  Carpentry, cabinet making, or millwork ....○
  Electrical ....○
  Masonry ....○
  Plumbing ....○
Cosmetology, hairdressing, or barbering ....○
Drafting ....○
Electronics ....○
Home economics, including dietetics and child care ......○
Machine shop ....○
Medical or dental assisting ....○
Practical nursing ....○
Quantity food occupations ....○
Sales or merchandising ....○
Secretarial, stenographic, typing, or
  other office work ....○
Welding ....○
Other ....○

EB114

114. Have you been accepted by any vocational school, trade school, or apprenticeship program? (MARK ONE)

Have applied and have been accepted .... ○
Have applied, but have not yet been accepted .... ○
Program does not require advance application .... ○
Plan to apply later .... ○

BB115

115. Do you plan to go to college at some time in the future? (MARK ONE)

Yes, next year .... ○
Yes, after staying out one year .... ○
Yes, after a longer period out of school .... ○
Don't know .... ○
No .... ○

FOR THOSE ANSWERING "NO" THE
QUESTIONNAIRE ENDS HERE.

ALL OTHERS CONTINUE WITH
THE QUESTIONNAIRE

364

116. How important are each of the following in choosing a college you plan to attend? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Not important	Somewhat important	Very important
EB116A	a. College expenses (tuition, books, room and board)	○	○	○
EB116B	b. Availability of financial aid such as a school loan, scholarship, or grant	○	○	○
EB116C	c. Availability of specific courses or curriculum	○	○	○
EB116D	d. Reputation of the college in academic areas	○	○	○
EB116E	e. Reputation of the college in athletic programs	○	○	○
EB116F	f. Social life at the college	○	○	○
EB116G	g. Able to live at home and attend the college	○	○	○

EB117
117. Have you applied for admission to any college or university? (MARK ONE)

Yes, to one college .... ○
Yes, to two or three colleges .... ○
Yes, to four or more colleges .... ○
No, the college I am planning to attend does not require advance application for admission .... ○
No, I plan to apply soon .... ○
No, I plan to go to college later .... ○

EB118
118. Have you been accepted by any college or university? (MARK ONE)

Yes .... ○
No .... ○
Have not heard yet .... ○
Have not applied yet .... ○

119. Please write down here the name and location (city or town, and state) of the college you think you are most likely to attend.

____

BB120

120. Indicate the field that comes closest to what you would most like to study in college. (MARK ONE)

- Agriculture (for example, agricultural economics, agronomy, forestry, and soils) ○
- Architecture ○
- Art (for example, art appreciation, design, drawing photography, graphics, and sculpting) ○
- Biological sciences (for example, botany, ecology, and zoology) ○
- Business (for example, accounting, business administration industrial management, marketing, and finance) ○
- Communications (for example, journalism, radio, and television) ○
- Computer and information sciences (for example, systems analysis) ○
- Education (for example, secondary education, elementary education, and physical education) ○
- Engineering (for example, chemical engineering, civil engineering, electrical engineering, and mechanical engineering) ○
- English (for example, creative writing, linguistics, literature, and speech and drama) ○
- Ethnic studies (for example, Black studies and Mexican-American studies) ○
- Foreign languages (for example, French, German, Italian, Latin, and Spanish) ○
- Health occupations (for example, practical nursing, medical technology, and x-ray technology) ○
- Health sciences (for example, registered nursing, optometry, and pharmacy) ○
- Home economics (for example, dietetics, family and child development, and textiles and clothing) ○
- Interdisciplinary studies ○
- Mathematics (for example, calculus and statistics) ○
- Music (for example, music appreciation and composition) ○
- Philosophy or religion (for example, ethics, logic, and theology) ○
- Physical science (for example, astronomy, biochemistry, chemistry, geology, and physics) ○
- Preprofessional (for example, prelaw, predentistry, and premedicine) ○
- Psychology ○
- Social sciences (for example, anthropology, economics, government, history, political science, social work, sociology, and urban affairs) ○
- Vocational or technical (for example, automobile repair, carpentry, computer programming, drafting, plumbing, stenography, and television repair) ○

Other (WRITE IN) ______________________________ ○

121. Do you plan to use funds available from any of the following programs for further study beyond high school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			No, I do not plan to use it	Yes, I plan to use it	I do not know enough about this program to answer the question
	A.	Loans:			
EB121AA	a.	National Direct Student Loan Program	○	○	○
EB121AB	b.	Federal Guaranteed Student Loan Program	○	○	○
EB121AC	c.	Nursing Student Loan Program	○	○	○
EB121AD	d.	State Student Loan Program	○	○	○
EB121AE	e.	College or University Student Loan Program	○	○	○
EB121AF	f.	Regular Bank Loan	○	○	○
	B.	Scholarships, Fellowships and Grants:			
EB121BA	a.	Basic Educational Opportunity Grant (BEOG)	○	○	○
EB121BB	b.	Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grant	○	○	○
EB121BC	c.	ROTC Scholarship	○	○	○
EB121BD	d.	Social Security Benefits for Children of Retired, Disabled or Deceased Parents	○	○	○
EB121BE	e.	Nursing Scholarship Program	○	○	○
EB121BF	f.	Veterans Administration Survivors' and Dependents Educational Assistance Program	○	○	○
EB121BG	g.	Veterans' Educational Assistance Program (VEAP)	○	○	○
EB121BH	h.	State Scholarship Program	○	○	○
EB121BI	i.	College or University Scholarship	○	○	○
EB121BJ	j.	Scholarships from Private Organizations	○	○	○
EB121BK	k.	Division of Vocational Rehabilitation Educational Benefits	○	○	○
	C.	Work Programs:			
EB121CA	a.	CETA-Sponsored Youth Employment Development	○	○	○
EB121CB	b.	College Work-Study	○	○	○
EB121CC	c.	Cooperative Education Program (Co-Op Ed.)	○	○	○

Appendix 1b
SO/Q 4278
1980

Form Approved
FEDAC No. S99
App. Exp: 12/80

HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND

High School and Beyond is sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics, an agency of the United States Department of Education.

Thank you for accepting our invitation to participate in HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND. This is a voluntary but important national survey. We are pleased that you have agreed to participate. Your cooperation and participation will help us learn more about the experiences of high school students and their plans for the future.

All information which would permit identification of the individual will be held in strict confidence, will be used only by persons engaged in and for the purposes of this survey, and will not be disclosed or released to others for any purposes except as required by law.

SOPHOMORE QUESTIONNAIRE

STATE:

SCHOOL NO:

STUDENT NO:

Prepared for the National
Center for Education
Statistics by the National
Opinion Research Center
NCES Form 2409-01

As a matter of policy, the National Center for Education Statistics is concerned with protecting the privacy of individuals who participate in voluntary surveys. We want to let you know that:

1. Section 406 of the General Education Provisions Act (20-USC 1221e-1) allows us to ask you the questions in this questionnaire.
2. You may skip any question you do not wish to answer.
3. We are asking you these questions in order to gather information about what happens to students as they move out of high school and make decisions about post-secondary education and work.
4. Your responses will be merged with those of other students, and the answers you give will never be identified as yours.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

PLEASE READ EACH QUESTION CAREFULLY.

It is important that you follow the directions for responding to each kind of question. These are:

(MARK ONE)

What is the color of your eyes? (MARK ONE)

Brown .... ○
Blue .... ○
Green .... ●
Another color .... ○

If the color of your eyes is green, you would mark the oval to the right of green.

(MARK ALL THAT APPLY)

Last week, did you do any of the following? (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)

See a play .... ○
Go to a movie .... ●
Attend a sporting event .... ●

If you went to a movie and attended a sporting event last week, you would mark the two ovals as shown.

(MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

Do you plan to do any of the following next week? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

	Yes	Not Sure	No
a. Visit a relative	○	○	●
b. Go to a museum	○	●	○
c. Study at a friend's house	●	○	○

If you plan to study at a friend's house, do not plan to visit a relative, and are not sure about going to a museum next week, you would mark one oval on each line as shown.

This questionnaire is not a test. We hope you will answer every question, but you may skip any question you do not wish to answer.

WE HOPE YOU WILL ANSWER EVERY QUESTION, BUT YOU MAY SKIP ANY QUESTION YOU DO NOT WISH TO ANSWER.

BB002

1. Which of the following best describes your present high school program? (MARK ONE)

General .... ○
Academic or college preparatory .... ○
Vocational (Occupational preparation)
  Agricultural occupations .... ○
  Business or office occupations .... ○
  Distributive education .... ○
  Health occupations .... ○
  Home economics occupations .... ○
  Technical occupations .... ○
  Trade or industrial occupations .... ○

YB002

2. Were you assigned to the program you are now in, or did you choose it yourself? (MARK ONE)

I was assigned .... ○
I chose it myself .... ○

YB003

3. Do you expect to graduate from high school? (MARK ONE)

Yes .... ○
Probably .... ○
Probably not .... ○
No .... ○

YB004

4. When do you expect to leave high school? (MARK ONE)

Before the beginning of the next school year
  (Before September 1980) .... ○
During the next school year (September 1980
  to June 1981) .... ○
After June 1981 but before graduation .... ○
After I graduate .... ○

YB005

5. Do you have a definite job lined up after you leave high school? (MARK ONE)

Yes .... ○
No .... ○

6. During the tenth grade, including all of this school year, how much course work will you have taken in each of the following subjects? Count only courses that meet at least three times (or three periods) a week. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)
○

			None	1/2 year	1 year	More than 1 year
YB006A	a.	Mathematics	○	○	○	○
YB006B	b.	English or literature	○	○	○	○
YB006C	c.	French	○	○	○	○
YB006D	d.	German	○	○	○	○
YB006E	e.	Spanish	○	○	○	○
YB006F	f.	History or social studies	○	○	○	○
YB006G	g.	Science	○	○	○	○
YB006H	h.	Business, office, or sales	○	○	○	○
YB006I	i.	Trade and industry	○	○	○	○
YB006J	j.	Technical courses	○	○	○	○
YB006K	k.	Other vocational courses	○	○	○	○

BB007

7. Which of the following best describes your grades so far in high school? (MARK ONE)
○

Mostly A's (or a numerical average of 90-100) ○
About half A's and half B's (or 85-89) ○
Mostly B's (or 80-84) ○
About half B's and half C's (or 75-79) ○
Mostly C's (or 70-74) ○
About half C's and half D's (or 65-69) ○
Mostly D's (or 60-64) ○
Mostly below D (or below 60) ○

8. For each of the high school subjects listed below, mark an oval for each statement that applies to you. (MARK ALL THAT APPLY FOR EACH SUBJECT)

	A.	Mathematics	
BB008AA	a.	I got mostly A's and B's in this subject	○
BB008AB	b.	It will be useful in my future	○
BB008AC	c.	It was interesting to me	○
BB008AD	d.	Took no mathematics courses	○
	B.	English or literature	
BB008BA	a.	I got mostly A's and B's in this subject	○
BB008BB	b.	It will be useful in my future	○
BB008BC	c.	It was interesting to me	○
BB008BD	d.	Took no English or literature courses	○
	C.	Business, office, or sales	
BB008CA	a.	I got mostly A's and B's in this subject	○
BB008CB	b.	It will be useful in my future	○
BB008CC	c.	It was interesting to me	○
BB008CD	d.	Took no business courses	○
	D.	Trade or industry	
BB008DA	a.	I got mostly A's and B's in this subject	○
BB008DB	b.	It will be useful in my future	○
BB008DC	c.	It was interesting to me	○
BB008DD	d.	Took no trade or industrial courses	○

9. During the 11th and 12th grades, how much course work do you plan to take in each of the ○ following subjects? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			None	1/2 year	1 year	1 1/2 years	2 years	More than 2 years	Don't know yet
YB009A	a.	Mathematics	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009B	b.	English or literature	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009C	c.	French	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009D	d.	German	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009E	e.	Spanish	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009F	f.	History or social studies	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009G	g.	Science	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009H	h.	Business, office, or sales	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009I	i.	Trade and industry	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009J	j.	Technical courses	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
YB009K	k.	Other vocational courses	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

10. Are you now taking or do you plan to take high school courses in any of the following areas? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Yes	No	Not certain
BB006A	a.	Agriculture, including horticulture	○	○	○
BB006B	b.	Auto mechanics	○	○	○
BB006C	c.	Commercial arts	○	○	○
BB006D	d.	Computer programming or computer operations	○	○	○
	e.	Construction trades:			
BB006E1		1. Carpentry, cabinet making, or millwork	○	○	○
BB006E2		2. Electrical	○	○	○
BB006E3		3. Masonry	○	○	○
BB006E4		4. Plumbing	○	○	○
BB006F	f.	Cosmetology, hairdressing, or barbering	○	○	○
BB006G	g.	Drafting	○	○	○
BB006H	h.	Electronics	○	○	○
BB006I	i.	Home economics, including dietetics and child care	○	○	○
BB006J	j.	Machine shop	○	○	○
BB006K	k.	Medical or dental assisting	○	○	○
BB006L	l.	Practical nursing	○	○	○
BB006M	m.	Quantity food occupations	○	○	○
BB006N	n.	Sales or merchandising	○	○	○
BB006O	o.	Secretarial, stenographic, typing, or other office work	○	○	○
BB006P	p.	Welding	○	○	○

YB011

11. Since you started the 5th grade, about how many times have you changed schools because you or your family moved? (MARK ONE)

Never	○
Once	○
Twice	○
Three times or more	○

YB012
12. Did you go to kindergarten before you started the first grade? (MARK ONE)

Yes .... ○
No .... ○

13. Have you ever been in any of the following kinds of courses or programs in high school?
○ (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		No	Yes
BB011A a.	Remedial English (sometimes called basic or essential)	○	○
BB011B b.	Remedial Mathematics (sometimes called basic or essential)	○	○
BB011C c.	Advanced or honors program in English	○	○
BB011D d.	Advanced or honors program in Mathematics	○	○
BB011E e.	Bilingual or bicultural program	○	○
BB011F f.	Family life or sex education	○	○
BB011G g.	Alcohol or drug abuse education	○	○
BB011H h.	Special program for the educationally handicapped	○	○
BB011I i.	Special program for the physically handicapped	○	○

14. Have you ever heard of or participated in any of the following high school educational
○ programs? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Never heard of this program	Have heard of this program but have not participated	Have participated in this program
BB014A a.	Cooperative Vocational Education Program (Co-op Program)	○	○	○
BB014B b.	High School Vocational Education Work-Study Program	○	○	○
BB014C c.	Talent Search	○	○	○
BB014D d.	Upward Bound	○	○	○
BB014E e.	Continuation High School	○	○	○
BB014F f.	Alternative High School	○	○	○
BB014G g.	Special School for pregnant girls or mothers	○	○	○
BB014H h.	CETA Work Programs (such as the Youth Employment and Training Program or the Conservation Corps)	○	○	○
BB014I i.	Junior ROTC	○	○	○

BB015
15. Approximately what is the average amount of time you spend on homework a week? (MARK ONE)

No homework is ever assigned .... ○
I have homework, but I don't do it .... ○
Less than 1 hour a week .... ○
Between 1 and 3 hours a week .... ○
More than 3 hours, less than 5 hours a week .... ○
Between 5 and 10 hours a week .... ○
More than 10 hours a week .... ○

16. How often do you come to class and find yourself without these things? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Usually	Fairly often	Seldom	Never
YB016A	a. Pencil or paper	○	○	○	○
YB016B	b. Books	○	○	○	○
YB016C	c. Your homework done	○	○	○	○

BB016

17. Between the beginning of school last fall and Christmas vacation, about how many days were you absent from school for any reason, not counting illness? (MARK ONE)

○

None	○
1 or 2 days	○
3 or 4 days	○
5 to 10 days	○
11 to 15 days	○
16 to 20 days	○
21 or more	○

BB017

18. Between the beginning of school last fall and Christmas vacation, about how many days were you late to school? (MARK ONE)

○

None	○
1 or 2 days	○
3 or 4 days	○
5 to 10 days	○
11 to 15 days	○
16 to 20 days	○
21 or more	○

19. To what extent are the following disciplinary matters problems in your school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Often happens	Sometimes happens	Rarely or never happens
YB019A	Students don't attend school	○	○	○
YB019B	Students cut classes, even if they attend school	○	○	○
YB019C	Students talk back to teachers	○	○	○
YB019D	Students refuse to obey instructions	○	○	○
YB019E	Students get in fights with each other	○	○	○
YB019F	Students attack or threaten to attack teachers	○	○	○

20. Listed below are certain rules which some schools have. Please mark those which are enforced in your school. (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)

YB020A School grounds closed to students at lunch time ○
YB020B Students responsible to the school for property damage ○
YB020C Hall passes required ○
YB020D "No smoking" rules ○
YB020E Rules about student dress ○

BB018
21. How old were you when you first worked for pay, not counting work around the house? (MARK ONE)

11 or younger ○
12 ○
13 ○
14 ○
15 ○
16 ○
17 ○
18 ○
19 ○
20 or older ○
Never have worked for pay ○

BB019
22. Did you do any work for pay last week, not counting work around the house? (MARK ONE)

Yes ○
No ○

BB020
23. Were you looking for a job last week? (MARK ONE)

Yes ○
No ○

BB021
24. When was the most recent time you worked for pay, not counting work around the house? (MARK ONE)

Never worked for pay ○

Last week ○
Within the past month, but not last week ○
Within the past 3 months ○
Since school started last fall ○
Last summer ○
Before that ○

BB022

25. How many hours do/did you work a week on your current or most recent job? (MARK ONE)

None, never worked for pay ○

1-4 hours per week ○
5-14 hours per week ○
15-21 hours per week ○
22-29 hours per week ○
30-34 hours per week ○
35 hours or more per week ○

BB023

26. How much do/did you earn per hour on that job (your current or most recent job)? (MARK ONE)

Have not worked for pay ○

Less than $1.50 per hour ○
$1.50 to $1.99 ○
$2.00 to $2.49 ○
$2.50 to $2.89 ○
$2.90 to $3.09 ○
$3.10 to $3.49 ○
$3.50 to $3.99 ○
$4.00 per hour or more ○

BB024

27. Which of the job categories below comes closest to the kind of work you do/did for pay on your current or most recent job? (If more than one kind of work, choose the one which paid you the most per week.) (MARK ONE)

Have not worked for pay ○

Lawn work or odd jobs ○
Waiter or waitress in a restaurant or drive-in ○
Babysitting or child care ○
Farm or agricultural work ○
Factory work, unskilled or semi-skilled ○
Skilled trade ○
Other manual labor ○
Store clerk or salesperson ○
Office or clerical ○
Hospital or health ○
Other ○

BB025

28. Is your current job (or was your most recent job) a CETA-sponsored job or another job supported by government funds, or is it for a private company? (MARK ONE)

Have not worked for pay ○

CETA-sponsored youth employment job ○
Other government-funded job ○
Private company ○
Other ○
Don't know ○

BB026

29. At your current or most recent job, about what proportion of the time is (was) spent on training (not on just doing your regular work on the job)? (MARK ONE)

Have not worked for pay ○

Almost no time in training ○
Less than one-quarter of the time ○
About a quarter of the time ○
About half of the time ○
More than half the time in training ○

30. In describing your present or most recent job, would you say it is. . . (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Yes	No	Never worked
BB027A	a. A place where people goof off?	○	○	○
BB027B	b. Something you do just for the money?	○	○	○
BB027C	c. More enjoyable than school?	○	○	○
BB027D	d. Encourages good work habits?	○	○	○
BB027E	e. More important for you than school?	○	○	○

BB028

31. What is the lowest hourly wage you would be willing to accept for a job while you are still in high school? (MARK ONE)

Below $1.50 ○
$1.50 ○
$1.75 ○
$2.00 ○
$2.25 ○
$2.50 ○
$2.75 ○
$3.00 ○
$3.25 ○
$3.50 ○
$3.75 ○
$4.00 per hour or more ○
Would not accept any job ○

BB029

32. What is the lowest hourly wage you would be willing to accept for a job after you graduate from high school? (MARK ONE)

Below $1.50 ○
$1.50 ○
$1.75 ○
$2.00 ○
$2.25 ○
$2.50 ○
$2.75 ○
$3.00 ○
$3.25 ○
$3.50 ○
$3.75 ○
$4.00 per hour or more ○

BB075
33. About how much money do you expect to earn from work in the year beginning July 1980 and ending June 1981? (MARK ONE)

None ○
Less than $1,000 ○
$1,000 to $2,999 ○
$3,000 to $4,999 ○
$5,000 to $6,999 ○
$7,000 to $8,999 ○
$9,000 to $10,999 ○
$11,000 to $12,999 ○
$13,000 to $14,999 ○
$15,000 or more ○

34. Have you participated in any of the following types of activities either in or out of school this year? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Have not participated	Have participated actively
BB032B	a. Athletic teams - in or out of school	○	○
BB032C	b. Cheer leaders, pep club, majorettes	○	○
BB032D	c. Debating or drama	○	○
BB032E	d. Band or orchestra	○	○
BB032F	e. Chorus or dance	○	○
BB032G	f. Hobby clubs such as photography, model building, hot rod, electronics, crafts	○	○
BB032J	g. School subject-matter clubs, such as science, history, language, business, art	○	○
BB032L	h. Vocational education clubs, such as Future Homemakers, Teachers, Farmers of America, DECA, FBLA, or VICA	○	○
BB032M	i. Youth organizations in the community, such as Scouts, Y, etc.	○	○
BB032N	j. Church activities, including youth groups	○	○
BB032O	k. Junior Achievement	○	○
YB034L	l. Co-op club	○	○

378

35. Please mark whether each of the following statements is true or false for you. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			True	False
YB035A	a.	I am usually at ease in English class	○	○
YB035B	b.	Doing English assignments makes me feel tense	○	○
YB035C	c.	English class does not scare me at all	○	○
YB035D	d.	I dread English class	○	○
YB035E	e.	I am usually at ease in mathematics class	○	○
YB035F	f.	Doing mathematics assignments makes me feel tense	○	○
YB035G	g.	Mathematics class does not scare me at all	○	○
YB035H	h.	I dread mathematics class	○	○

36. Which of the following people live in the same household with you? (MARK ALL THAT ○ APPLY)

BB036A	a.	I live alone	○
BB036B	b.	Father	○
BB036C	c.	Other male guardian (step-father or foster father)	○
BB036D	d.	Mother	○
BB036E	e.	Other female guardian (step-mother or foster mother)	○
BB036F	f.	Brother(s) and/or sister(s) (including step- or half-)	○
BB036G	g.	Grandparent(s)	○
BB036H	h.	My husband/wife	○
BB036I	i.	My child or my children	○
BB036J	j.	Other relative(s) (children or adults)	○
BB036K	k.	Non-relative(s) (children or adults)	○

37. Did your mother (stepmother or female guardian) usually work during the following periods of your life? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Did not work	Worked part-time	Worked full-time	Don't know	Does not apply
BB037A	a.	When you were in high school	○	○	○	○	○
BB037B	b.	When you were in elementary school	○	○	○	○	○
BB037C	c.	Before you went to elementary school	○	○	○	○	○

The next questions ask about your parents or guardians. Please answer for those parents with whom you are now living. For example, if you have both a natural father and a step-father or other male guardian, answer for the male who lives in the same household with you. If you are living with neither, use the category—'Do not live with father (stepfather or male guardian).

Please answer for the same persons in later questions that ask about your father or your mother.

BB038

38. Please describe below the job most recently held by your father (stepfather or male guardian), even if he is not working at present.

○

(WRITE IN) ______________________________

Which of the categories below comes closest to describing that job? (MARK ONE)

Do not live with father (stepfather or male guardian) ○
CLERICAL such as bank teller, bookkeeper, secretary, typist, mail carrier, ticket agent ○
CRAFTSMAN such as baker, automobile mechanic, machinist, painter, plumber, telephone installer, carpenter ○
FARMER, FARM MANAGER ○
HOMEMAKER OR HOUSEWIFE ONLY ○
LABORER such as construction worker, car washer, sanitary worker, farm laborer ○
MANAGER, ADMINISTRATOR such as sales manager, office manager, school administrator, buyer, restaurant manager, government official ○
MILITARY such as career officer, enlisted man or woman in the Armed Forces ○
OPERATIVE such as meat cutter, assembler, machine operator, welder, taxicab, bus, or truck driver ○
PROFESSIONAL such as accountant, artist, registered nurse, engineer, librarian, writer, social worker, actor, actress, athlete, politician, but not including school teacher ○
PROFESSIONAL such as clergyman, dentist, physician, lawyer, scientist, college teacher ○
PROPRIETOR OR OWNER such as owner of a small business, contractor, restaurant owner ○
PROTECTIVE SERVICE such as detective, police officer or guard, sheriff, fire fighter ○
SALES such as salesperson, advertising or insurance agent, real estate broker ○
SCHOOL TEACHER such as elementary or secondary ○
SERVICE such as barber, beautician, practical nurse, private household worker, janitor, waiter ○
TECHNICAL such as draftsman, medical or dental technician, computer programmer ○
Never worked ○
Don't know ○

BB039

39. What was the highest level of education your father (stepfather or male guardian) completed? (MARK ONE)

○

Do not live with father (stepfather or male guardian) ○

Less than high school graduation ○
High school graduation only ○

Vocational, trade, or business school after high school
- Less than two years ○
- Two years or more ○

College program
- Less than two years of college ○
- Two or more years of college (including two-year degree) ○
- Finished college (four- or five-year degree) ○
- Master's degree or equivalent ○
- Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree ○

Don't know ○

BB040
40. **How much of his life has your father (stepfather or male guardian) spent in the United States? (MARK ONE)**

All or almost all ○
More than 20 years, but not all ○
About 11-20 years ○
About 6-10 years ○
About 1-5 years ○
Don't know. ○

BB041
41. **Please describe below the job most recently held by your mother (stepmother or female guardian) even if she is not working at present.**
○

(WRITE IN) ______________________________

Which of the categories below comes closest to describing that job? (MARK ONE)

Do not live with mother (stepmother or female guardian) ○
CLERICAL such as bank teller, bookkeeper, secretary, typist, mail carrier, ticket agent ○
CRAFTSMAN such as baker, automobile mechanic, machinist, painter, plumber, telephone installer, carpenter ○
FARMER, FARM MANAGER ○
HOMEMAKER OR HOUSEWIFE ONLY ○
LABORER such as construction worker, car washer, sanitary worker, farm laborer ○
MANAGER, ADMINISTRATOR such as sales manager, office manager, school administrator, buyer, restaurant manager, government official ○
MILITARY such as career officer, enlisted man or woman in the Armed Forces ○
OPERATIVE such as meat cutter, assembler, machine operator, welder, taxicab, bus, or truck driver ○
PROFESSIONAL such as accountant, artist, registered nurse, engineer, librarian, writer, social worker, actor actress, athlete, politican, but not including school teacher ○
PROFESSIONAL such as clergyman, dentist, physician, lawyer, scientist, college teacher ○
PROPRIETOR OR OWNER such as owner of a small business, contractor, restaurant owner ○
PROTECTIVE SERVICE such as detective, police officer or guard, sheriff, fire fighter ○
SALES such as salesperson, advertising or insurance agent, real estate broker ○
SCHOOL TEACHER such as elementary or secondary ○
SERVICE such as barber, beautician, practical nurse, private household worker janitor, waiter ○
TECHNICAL such as draftsman, medical or dental technician, computer programmer ○
Never worked ○
Don't know ○

BB042
42. What was the highest level of education your mother (stepmother or female guardian) ○ completed? (MARK ONE)

Do not live with mother (stepmother or female guardian) ○

Less than high school graduation ○
High school graduation only ○

Vocational, trade or business school after high school
- Less than two years ○
- Two years or more ○

College program
- Less than two years of college ○
- Two or more years of college (including two-year degree) ○
- Finished college (four- or five-year degree) ○
- Master's degree or equivalent ○
- Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree ○

Don't know ○

BB043
43. How much of her life has your mother (stepmother or female guardian) spent in the United States? (MARK ONE)

All or almost all ○
More than 20 years, but not all ○
About 11-20 years ○
About 6-10 years ○
About 1-5 years ○
Don't know ○

BB044
44. Were you born in the United States? (MARK ONE)

Yes ○
No ○

BB045
45. How much of your life have you spent in the United States? (MARK ONE)

All or almost all ○
More than 10 years, but not all ○
About 6-10 years ○
About 1-5 years ○

46. Are the following statements about your parents true or false? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR each line)

		True	False	Does not apply
BB046A	a. My mother (stepmother or female guardian) keeps close track of how well I am doing in school	○	○	○
BB046B	b. My father (stepfather or male guardian) keeps close track of how well I am doing in school	○	○	○
BB046C	c. My parents (or guardians) almost always know where I am and what I'm doing	○	○	○

47. How often do you spend time on the following activities outside of school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Rarely or never	Less than once a week	Once or twice a week	Every day or almost every day
BB047A	a. Visiting with friends at a local gathering place	○	○	○	○
BB047B	b. Reading for pleasure	○	○	○	○
BB047C	c. Going out on dates	○	○	○	○
BB047D	d. Just driving or riding around (alone or with friends)	○	○	○	○
BB047E	e. Talking with friends on the telephone	○	○	○	○
BB047F	f. Thinking or daydreaming alone	○	○	○	○
BB047G	g. Talking with your mother or father about personal experiences	○	○	○	○
BB047H	h. Reading the front page of the newspaper	○	○	○	○

BB048

48. During week days about how many hours per day do you watch TV? (MARK ONE)

Don't watch TV during week ○
Less than 1 hour ○
1 hour or more, less than 2 ○
2 hours or more, less than 3 ○
3 hours or more, less than 4 ○
4 hours or more, less than 5 ○
5 or more ○

49. How much have you talked to the following people about planning your school program? MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Not at all	Somewhat	A great deal
YB049A	a. Your father	○	○	○
YB049B	b. Your mother	○	○	○
YB049C	c. A guidance counselor	○	○	○
YB049D	d. Teachers	○	○	○
YB049E	e. Friends or relatives about your own age	○	○	○

50. What do the following people think you ought to do after high school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Go to college	Get a full-time job	Enter a trade school or an apprenticeship	Enter military service	They don't care	I don't know	Does not apply
BB050A	a. Your father	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB050B	b. Your mother	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB050C	c. A guidance counselor	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB050D	d. Teachers	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB050E	e. Friends or relatives about your own age	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

51. Please think of your closest friend in this school who is a sophomore. As far as you know, are the following statements true or false for him/her? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		True	False
BB051A	a. Gets good grades	○	○
BB051B	b. Is interested in school	○	○
BB051C	c. Attends classes regularly	○	○
BB051D	d. Plans to go to college	○	○
BB051E	e. Is popular with others	○	○

52. How do you and your friends in this school mostly feel about these different kinds of students? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Mostly think well of such a student	Mostly do not think well of such a student	Makes no difference
	A. Students who get very good grades:			
YB052AA	Do you	○	○	○
YB052AB	Do your friends	○	○	○
	B. Students who are very good athletes:			
YB052BA	Do you	○	○	○
YB052BB	Do your friends	○	○	○
	C. Students who are very active socially:			
YB052CA	Do you	○	○	○
YB052CB	Do your friends	○	○	○

53. How do other sophomores in your school see you? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Very	Somewhat	Not at all
YB053A	a. As popular?	○	○	○
YB053B	b. As athletic?	○	○	○
YB053C	c. As socially active?	○	○	○
YB053D	d. As a good student?	○	○	○
YB053E	e. As important?	○	○	○
YB053F	f. As a trouble-maker?	○	○	○
YB053G	g. As part of the leading crowd?	○	○	○

54. Do you know how to . . . (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Yes	Not sure	No
YB054A	a. Apply for an office job in a big company?	○	○	○
YB054B	b. Arrange an appointment with a doctor?	○	○	○
YB054C	c. Choose a school program which will help you in college?	○	○	○
YB054D	d. Apply to a college for admission?	○	○	○
YB054E	e. Find out about different kinds of jobs?	○	○	○
YB054F	f. Arrange a bus, train or plane trip to go out of town?	○	○	○

YB055
55. **Do you get spending money from your parents regularly? (MARK ONE)**

I get a regular amount of allowance .... ○
I get money when I need it, but not a regular amount .... ○
I don't get spending money .... ○

56. **Have you ever had the following experience? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

			Yes	No
YB056A	a.	Taken music lessons?	○	○
YB056B	b.	Traveled outside of this state?	○	○
YB056C	c.	Taken dance lessons?	○	○
YB056D	d.	Visited a museum?	○	○
YB056E	e.	Taken an ability test outside of school?	○	○
YB056F	f.	Traveled outside of the U.S.?	○	○
YB056G	g.	Been to a professional ball game?	○	○
YB056H	h.	Been to a rock concert?	○	○

57. **Please rate your school on each of the following aspects. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

			Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Don't know
BB053A	a.	Condition of buildings and classrooms	○	○	○	○	○
BB053B	b.	Library facilities	○	○	○	○	○
BB053C	c.	Quality of academic instruction	○	○	○	○	○
BB053D	d.	Reputation in the community	○	○	○	○	○
BB053E	e.	Teacher interest in students	○	○	○	○	○
BB053F	f.	Strict discipline	○	○	○	○	○
BB053G	g.	Fairness of discipline	○	○	○	○	○
BB053H	h.	School spirit	○	○	○	○	○

BB054
58. **Does your high school have a minimum competency or proficiency test—that is, a special test that all students must pass in order to get a high school diploma? (MARK ONE)**

Yes .... ○
No .... ○
Don't know ...... ○

BB055
59. **Have you taken a minimum competency or proficiency test yet? (MARK ONE)**

School does not have such a test ○

Yes ○
No ○
Don't know ○

BB056
60. **Did you pass or fail or don't you know the results yet? (MARK ONE)**

Did not take such a test ○

Passed ○
Failed ○
Don't know results yet ○

61. **How important is each of the following to you in your life? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

		Not important	Somewhat important	Very important
BB057A	a. Being successful in my line of work	○	○	○
BB057B	b. Finding the right person to marry and having a happy family life	○	○	○
BB057C	c. Having lots of money	○	○	○
BB057D	d. Having strong friendships	○	○	○
BB057E	e. Being able to find steady work	○	○	○
BB057F	f. Being a leader in my community	○	○	○
BB057G	g. Being able to give my children better opportunities than I've had	○	○	○
BB057H	h. Living close to parents and relatives	○	○	○
BB057I	i. Getting away from this area of the country	○	○	○
BB057J	j. Working to correct social and economic inequalities	○	○	○
BB057K	k. Having children	○	○	○
BB057L	l. Having leisure time to enjoy my own interests	○	○	○

64. **During the past few weeks, did you ever feel . . .**
(MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			Never	Once	Several times	A lot
YB064A	a.	Particularly excited or interested in something?	○	○	○	○
YB064B	b.	So restless that you couldn't sit long in a chair?	○	○	○	○
YB064C	c.	Proud because someone complimented you on something you had done?	○	○	○	○
YB064D	d.	Very lonely or remote from other people?	○	○	○	○
YB064E	e.	Pleased about having accomplished something?	○	○	○	○
YB064F	f.	Bored?	○	○	○	○
YB064G	g.	On top of the world?	○	○	○	○
YB064H	h.	Depressed or very unhappy?	○	○	○	○
YB064I	i.	That things were going your way?	○	○	○	○
YB064J	j.	Upset because someone criticized you?	○	○	○	○

BB060

65. **During the past month, have you felt so sad, or had so many problems, that you wondered if anything was worthwhile? (MARK ONE)**

Yes, more than once	○
Yes, once	○
No	○

66. **Are the following statements about your experience in school true or false? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

			True	False
BB059A	a.	I am satisfied with the way my education is going	○	○
BB059B	b.	I have had disciplinary problems in school during the last year	○	○
BB059C	c.	I am interested in school	○	○
BB059D	d.	I have been suspended or put on probation in school	○	○
BB059E	e.	Every once in a while I cut a class	○	○
BB059F	f.	I don't feel safe at this school	○	○

67. **Are the following statements about yourself true or false? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)**

			True	False
BB061A	a.	I have been in serious trouble with the law	○	○
BB061B	b.	I am overweight	○	○
BB061C	c.	Others think of me as physically unattractive	○	○
BB061D	d.	I am popular with other students in my class	○	○
BB061E	e.	I like to work hard in school	○	○
BB061F	f.	I enjoy working for pay	○	○
BB061G	g.	I will be disappointed if I don't graduate from college	○	○

BB062
68. What kind of work will you be doing when you are 30 years old? (MARK THE OVAL FOR THE ONE THAT COMES CLOSEST TO WHAT YOU EXPECT TO BE DOING.)
○

- CLERICAL such as bank teller, bookkeeper, secretary, typist, mail carrier, ticket agent ○
- CRAFTSMAN such as baker, automobile mechanic, machinist, painter, plumber, telephone installer, carpenter ○
- FARMER, FARM MANAGER ○
- HOMEMAKER OR HOUSEWIFE ONLY ○
- LABORER such as construction worker, car washer, sanitary worker, farm laborer ○
- MANAGER, ADMINISTRATOR such as sales manager, office manager, school administrator, buyer, restaurant manager, government official ○
- MILITARY such as career officer, enlisted man or woman in the Armed Forces ○
- OPERATIVE such as meat cutter, assembler, machine operator, welder, taxicab, bus, or truck driver ○
- PROFESSIONAL such as accountant, artist, registered nurse, engineer, librarian, writer, social worker, actor, actress, athlete, politician, but not including school teacher ○
- PROFESSIONAL such as clergyman, dentist, physician, lawyer, scientist, college teacher ○
- PROPRIETOR OR OWNER such as owner of a small business, contractor, restaurant owner ○
- PROTECTIVE SERVICE such as detective, police officer or guard, sheriff, fire fighter ○
- SALES such as salesperson, advertising or insurance agent, real estate broker ○
- SCHOOL TEACHER such as elementary or secondary ○
- SERVICE such as barber, beautician, practical nurse, private household worker, janitor, waiter ○
- TECHNICAL such as draftsman, medical or dental technician, computer programmer ○
- NOT WORKING ○

BB065
69. As things stand now, how far in school do you think you will get? (MARK ONE)
○

- Less than high school graduation ○
- High school graduation only ○
- Vocational, trade, or business school after high school
  - Less than two years ○
  - Two years or more ○
- College program
  - Less than two years of college ○
  - Two or more years of college (including two-year degree) ○
  - Finish college (four- or five-year degree) ○
  - Master's degree or equivalent ○
  - Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree ○

BB066
70. How far in school do you think your mother wants you to go? (MARK ONE)

Less than high school graduation		○
High school graduation only		○
Vocational, trade, or business school after high school	Less than two years	○
	Two years or more	○
College program	Less than two years of college	○
	Two or more years of college (including two-year degree)	○
	Finish college (four- or five-year degree)	○
	Master's degree or equivalent	○
	Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree	○
Don't know		○

BB067
71. What is the lowest level of education you would be satisfied with? (MARK ONE)

Less than high school graduation		○
High school graduation only		○
Vocational, trade, or business school after high school	Less than two years	○
	Two years or more	○
College program	Less than two years of college	○
	Two or more years of college (including two-year degree)	○
	Finished college (four- or five-year degree)	○
	Master's degree or equivalent	○
	Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree	○

72. Did you expect to go to college when you were in the following grades? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

	When you were . . .	Yes	No	Was not sure	Hadn't thought about it
YB072A	a. In the 6th grade?	○	○	○	○
YB072B	b. In the 7th grade?	○	○	○	○
BB068A	c. In the 8th grade?	○	○	○	○
BB068B	d. In the 9th grade?	○	○	○	○

BB069
73. Whatever your plans, do you think you have the ability to complete college? (MARK ONE)

Yes, definitely	○
Yes, probably	○
Not sure	○
I doubt it	○
Definitely not	○

BB070

74. **If there were a program of compulsory two-year service after high school, with options of military service or community service as listed below, what would you most likely do? (MARK ONE)**

Military service with educational benefits afterwards (such as scholarships for veterans) .... ○
Public service (such as hospitals, Peace Corps, forest service) .... ○
I am undecided .... ○
I would try to avoid either option .... ○

BB071

75. **What is the one thing that most likely will take the largest share of your time in the year after you leave high school? (MARK ONE)**

○

Working full time .... ○
Entering an apprenticeship or on-the-job training program .... ○
Going into regular military service (or service academy) .... ○
Being a full-time homemaker .... ○
Taking vocational or technical courses at a trade or business school full time or part time .... ○
Taking academic courses at a junior or community college full time or part time .... ○
Taking technical or vocational subjects at a junior or community college full time or part time .... ○
Attending a four-year college or university full time or part time .... ○
Working part time, but not attending school or college .... ○
Other (travel, take a break, no plans) .... ○

76. **What other things do you now plan to do the year after you leave high school? (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)**

BB072A a. Work .... ○
BB072B b. Enter an apprenticeship or on-the-job training program .... ○
BB072C c. Go into regular military service (or service academy) .... ○
BB072D d. Be a homemaker .... ○
BB072E e. Take vocational or technical courses at a trade or business school .... ○
BB072F f. Take academic courses at a junior or community college .... ○
BB072G g. Take technical or vocational subjects at a junior or community college .... ○
BB072H h. Attend a four-year college or university .... ○
BB072I i. Other (travel, take a break, no plans) .... ○

BB078

77. Assume you are in this situation. You want to go to college but the college you want to attend will cost $1,500 more than you and your family and any scholarship funds can provide. Which one of these would you most likely do? (MARK ONE)

- Try to get a loan .... ○
- Try to get a part-time job .... ○
- Choose a college that costs less .... ○
- Go to college later when funds are available .... ○
- Don't know .... ○

78. At what age do you expect to . . . (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH QUESTION)

		Don't expect to do this	Have already done this	Under 18	Age in years: 18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30 or more
BB081A	a. Get married?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB081B	b. Have your first child?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB081C	c. Start your first regular (not summer) job?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB081D	d. Live in your own home or apartment?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB081E	e. Finish your full-time education?			○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

YB079

79. Is there a particular person of the opposite sex with whom you go out regularly, or with whom you are going steady (or are engaged)? (MARK ONE)

- Yes .... ○
- No .... ○

BB082

80. How many children altogether do you eventually expect to have? (MARK ONE)

- None .... ○
- One .... ○
- Two .... ○
- Three .... ○
- Four or more .... ○

YB081

81. Would you consider having a child if you weren't married? (MARK ONE)

- Yes .... ○
- Maybe .... ○
- No .... ○

YB082
82. Suppose a friend asked you about information on methods of birth control. How much information would you be able to give him/her? (MARK ONE)

Very little .... ○
Some .... ○
A lot .... ○

YB083
83. Which of the following is your most important source of information about methods of birth control? (MARK ONE)

School courses on sex (family) education .... ○
Talking with my father or mother .... ○
Talking with friends .... ○
Books and magazines I have read .... ○
Clinic or agency .... ○
I don't know about methods of birth control .... ○

Background information . . .

BB083
84. Sex:
(MARK ONE)

Male .... ○
Female .... ○

BB084
85. Age:
(MARK ONE)

13 or younger	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21 or older
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

BB085
86. Height:
(MARK THE OVALS WHICH INDICATE YOUR HEIGHT IN FEET AND INCHES)

	3	4	5	6	7
Feet:	○	○	○	○	○

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Inches:	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

BB086
87. Weight:
(MARK THE OVAL THAT INDICATES YOUR WEIGHT)

Less than 100 pounds .... ○
101-105 .... ○
106-110 .... ○
111-115 .... ○
116-120 .... ○
121-125 .... ○
126-130 .... ○
131-135 .... ○
136-140 .... ○
141-145 .... ○
146-150 .... ○
151-155 .... ○
156-160 .... ○
161-165 .... ○
166-170 .... ○
171-175 .... ○
176-180 .... ○
181-185 .... ○
186-190 .... ○
191-195 .... ○
196-200 .... ○
201-205 .... ○
206-210 .... ○
211-215 .... ○
216-220 .... ○
221-225 .... ○
Over 226 pounds .... ○

88. Do you have any of the following conditions? (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)
○

BB087A a. Specific learning disability .... ○
BB087B b. Visual handicap .... ○
BB087C c. Hard of hearing .... ○
BB087D d. Deafness .... ○
BB087E e. Speech disability .... ○
BB087F f. Orthopedic handicap .... ○
BB087G g. Other health impairment .... ○

BB088
89. Do you feel that you have a physical condition that limits the kind or amount of work you can do on a job, or affects your chances for more education? (MARK ONE)

No .... ○
Yes .... ○

BB089
90. What is your race? (MARK ONE)
○

Black .... ○
White .... ○
American Indian or Alaskan Native .... ○
Asian or Pacific Islander .... ○
Other .... ○

BB090

91. ○ What is your origin or descent? (If more than one, please mark below the one you consider the most important part of your background.) (MARK ONE)

HISPANIC OR SPANISH:

Mexican, Mexican-American, Chicano ○
Cuban, Cubano ○
Puerto Rican, Puertorriqueno or Boricua ○
Other Latin American, Latino, Hispanic, or Spanish descent ○

NON-HISPANIC:

African:
  Afro-American ○
  West Indian or Carribean ○
Alaskan Native ○
American Indian ○
Asian or Pacific Islander:
  Chinese ○
  Filipino ○
  Indian, Pakistani or other South Asian ○
  Japanese ○
  Korean ○
  Vietnamese ○
  Other Pacific Islander ○
  Other Asian ○
European:
  English or Welsh ○
  French ○
  German ○
  Greek ○
  Irish ○
  Italian ○
  Polish ○
  Portuguese ○
  Russian ○
  Scottish ○
  Other European ○
Canadian (French) ○
Canadian (Other) ○
United States only ○

Other (WRITE IN) ________________ ○

NOTE: The following four questions pertain to fundamental freedoms of expression. These and other questions will provide helpful information for the interpretation of survey results. If you have any reservations about answering questions 92, 93, 94, and 95 please remember that you may leave them unanswered.

BB091
92. What is your religious background? (MARK ONE)

Baptist ○
Methodist ○
Lutheran ○
Presbyterian ○
Episcopalian ○
Other Protestant denomination ○
Catholic ○
Other Christian ○
Jewish ○
Other religion ○
None ○

BB092
93. In the past year, about how often have you attended religious services? (MARK ONE)

More than once a week ○
About once a week ○
Two or three times a month ○
About once a month ○
Several times a year or less ○
Not at all ○

BB093
94. Do you think of yourself as a religious person? (MARK ONE)

Yes, very ○
Yes, somewhat ○
No, not at all ○

BB094
95. How would you describe your political beliefs? (MARK ONE)

Conservative or very conservative ○
Moderate ○
Liberal ○
Very liberal or radical ○
None ○
Don't know ○

BB095
96. Did anyone at home read to you when you were young before you started school? (MARK ONE)

Never ○
Less than once a month ○
One to four times a month ○
Several times a week ○
Every day ○
Don't remember ○

97. How many brothers and sisters do you have in each of the age groups below? Please include step-brothers and step-sisters if they live, or have lived, in your home. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		How many brothers and sisters do you have who are . . .	None	One	Two	Three	Four	Five or more
BB096A	a.	Three or more years older than you	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB096B	b.	1-2 years older	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB096C	c.	Same age as you	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB096D	d.	1-2 years younger	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB096E	e.	Three or more years younger	○	○	○	○	○	○

BB097
98. Do you have a twin brother or twin sister? (MARK ONE)

Yes ○
No ○

BB100
99. American families are divided below into three equal groups according to how much money the family makes in a year. Mark the oval for the group which comes closest to the amount of money your family makes in a year. (MARK ONE)

1/3 of American families make: $11,999 or less ○
1/3 of American families make: $12,000 to $19,999 ○
1/3 of American families make: $20,000 or more ○

BB101
100. This time families are divided into seven groups according to how much money they make in a year. Mark the oval for the group which comes closest to the amount of money your family makes in a year. (MARK ONE)

○

$6,999 or less ○
$7,000 to $11,999 ○
$12,000 to $15,999 ○
$16,000 to $19,999 ○
$20,000 to $24,999 ○
$25,000 to $37,999 ○
$38,000 or more ○

BB102
101. Does your family own or rent the house or apartment in which you now live? (MARK ONE)

Own ○
Rent ○
Other arrangement ○

BB103

102. How many rooms are there in your home? Count only the rooms your family lives in. Count the kitchen (if separate) but not bathrooms. (MARK ONE)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 or more
○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

103. Which of the following do you have in your home? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		Have	Do not have
BB104A	a. A specific place for study	○	○
BB104B	b. A daily newspaper	○	○
BB104C	c. Encyclopedia or other reference books	○	○
BB104D	d. Typewriter	○	○
BB104E	e. Electric dishwasher	○	○
BB104F	f. Two or more cars or trucks that run	○	○
BB104G	g. More than 50 books	○	○
BB104H	h. A room of your own	○	○
BB104I	i. Pocket calculator	○	○

104. When you were in the first, sixth, and ninth grades, about how many of the students in your class were Black? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		None	Few	About half	Most	All
BB105A	a. In my first grade	○	○	○	○	○
BB105B	b. In my sixth grade	○	○	○	○	○
BB105C	c. In my ninth grade	○	○	○	○	○

105. When you were in the first, sixth, and ninth grades, about how many of the students in your class were Hispanic (Mexican, Cuban, Puerto Rican, Latino, or other Spanish descent)? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

		None	Few	About half	Most	All
BB106A	a. In my first grade	○	○	○	○	○
BB106B	b. In my sixth grade	○	○	○	○	○
BB106C	c. In my ninth grade	○	○	○	○	○

BB113

106. If you were to go to a trade or vocational school, what field would you most likely train for? (MARK ONE)

- Don't plan to go to trade or vocational school ○
- Agriculture, including horticulture ○
- Auto mechanics ○
- Commercial arts ○
- Computer programming or computer operations ○
- Construction trades:
  - Carpentry, cabinet making, or millwork ○
  - Electrical ○
  - Masonry ○
- Plumbing ○
- Cosmetology, hairdressing, or barbering ○
- Drafting ○
- Electronics ○
- Home economics, including dietetics and child care ○
- Machine shop ○
- Medical or dental assisting ○
- Practical nursing ○
- Quantity food occupations ○
- Sales or merchandising ○
- Secretarial, stenographic, typing or other office work ○
- Welding ○
- Other ○

BB107

107. If you went to college, would it most likely be . . . (MARK ONE)

- A four-year college or university ○
- A two-year junior or community college ○

BB108

108. If you went to college would you most likely go to . . . (MARK ONE)

- A public college or university ○
- A private college or university ○

BB109

109. If you went to college would you probably go . . . (MARK ONE)

- In this state ○
- In another state ○

398

BB110
110. If you went to college would you probably go . . . (MARK ONE)

Full-time .... ○
Part-time .... ○

111. How much do you think each of the following kinds of schooling would cost for a year? Just answer about expenses for tuition, fees, books, and so on--not living expenses. (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

Schooling expenses would be . . .

		Under $500	$500-$1,000	$1,001-$2,000	$2,001-$3,000	$3,001-$5,000	$5,001-$7,000	Don't know
BB111A	a. Cost at a public junior or community college	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB111B	b. Cost at a state four-year college or university	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
BB111C	c. Cost at a private four-year college or university	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

BB115
112. Do you plan to go to college at some time in the future? (MARK ONE)

Yes, right after high school .... ○
Yes, after staying out one year .... ○
Yes, after a longer period out of school .... ○
Don't know .... ○
No .... ○

BB120

113. Indicate the field that comes closest to what you would most like to study in college. (MARK ONE)

- Agriculture (for example, agricultural economics, agronomy, forestry, and soils) ○
- Architecture ○
- Art (for example, art appreciation, design, drawing photography, graphics, and sculpting) ○
- Biological sciences (for example, botany, ecology, and zoology) ○
- Business (for example, accounting, business administration industrial management, marketing, and finance) ○
- Communications (for example, journalism, radio, and television) ○
- Computer and information sciences (for example, systems analysis) ○
- Education (for example, secondary education, elementary education, and physical education) ○
- Engineering (for example, chemical engineering, civil engineering, electrical engineering, and mechanical engineering) ○
- English (for example, creative writing, linguistics, literature, and speech and drama) ○
- Ethnic studies (for example, Black studies and Mexican-American studies) ○
- Foreign languages (for example, French, German, Italian, Latin, and Spanish) ○
- Health occupations (for example, practical nursing, medical technology, and x-ray technology) ○
- Health sciences (for example, registered nursing, optometry, and pharmacy) ○
- Home economics (for example, dietetics, family and child development, and textiles and clothing) ○
- Interdisciplinary studies ○
- Mathematics (for example, calculus and statistics) ○
- Music (for example, music appreciation and composition) ○
- Philosophy or religion (for example, ethics, logic, and theology) ○
- Physical science (for example, astronomy, biochemistry, chemistry, geology, and physics) ○
- Preprofessional (for example, prelaw, predentistry, and premedicine) ○
- Psychology ○
- Social sciences (for example, anthropology, economics, government, history, political science, social work, sociology, and urban affairs) ○
- Vocational or technical (for example, automobile repair, carpentry, computer programming, drafting, plumbing, stenography, and television repair) ○

Other (WRITE IN) ______________________________ ○

400

114. For students in this school are the following programs available to help pay for further study beyond high school? (MARK ONE OVAL FOR EACH LINE)

			No	Yes	I don't know
	A.	Loans:			
YB114AA	a.	National Direct Student Loan Program	○	○	○
YB114AB	b.	Federal Guaranteed Student Loan Program	○	○	○
YB114AC	c.	Nursing Student Loan Program	○	○	○
YB114AD	d.	State Student Loan Program	○	○	○
YB114AE	e.	College or University Student Loan Program	○	○	○
YB114AF	f.	Regular Bank Loan	○	○	○
	B.	Scholarships, Fellowships and Grants:			
YB114BA	a.	Basic Educational Opportunity Grant (BEOG)	○	○	○
YB114BB	b.	Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grant	○	○	○
YB114BC	c.	ROTC Scholarship	○	○	○
YB114BD	d.	Social Security Benefits for Children of Retired, Disabled or Deceased Parents	○	○	○
YB114BE	e.	Nursing Scholarship Program	○	○	○
YB114BF	f.	Veterans Administration Survivors' and Dependents Educational Assistance Program	○	○	○
YB114BG	g.	Veterans' Educational Assistance Program (VEAP)	○	○	○
YB114BH	h.	State Scholarship Program	○	○	○
YB114BI	i.	College or University Scholarship	○	○	○
YB114BJ	j.	Scholarships from Private Organizations	○	○	○
YB114BK	k.	Division of Vocational Rehabilitation Educational Benefits	○	○	○
	C.	Work Programs:			
YB114CA	a.	CETA-Sponsored Youth Employment Development	○	○	○
YB114CB	b.	College Work-Study	○	○	○
YB114CC	c.	Cooperative Education Program (Co-Op Ed.)	○	○	○

Appendix 1c
SQ 4278
1980

Form Approved
FEDAC No. S99
App. Exp: 12/80

HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND

HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND is sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics, an agency of the United States Department of Education.

SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE

The National Center for Education Statistics is authorized by Section 406 of the General Education Provisions Act (20 USC 1221e-1) to request participating schools to respond to this questionnaire. While you are not required to respond, your cooperation is needed to provide school information which will be used to aid in the interpretation of data about students in the survey, HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND.

All information which would permit identification of the school or of the individual person(s) filling out this form will be held in strict confidence, will be used only by persons engaged in and for the purposes of this survey, and will not be disclosed or released to others for any purposes except as required by law.

☐☐ 01-02/ STATE
☐☐☐☐☐ 03-07/ SCHOOL

Title of Respondent: ____________________

Date filled out: ____________________

Prepared for
THE NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS
by
THE NATIONAL OPINION RESEARCH CENTER

NCES Form 2409-13

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DECK 01

PLEASE NOTE: Some schools may have supplied information identical to that requested in questions marked with an asterisk (*). If you have supplied the information for the same time period, it is not necessary to provide it. NORC staff may check with you about this. However, it would help us greatly if you would provide the information again in this questionnaire.

SB001A

*1. A. What is the lowest grade included at your school? (CIRCLE ONE)

PK K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 — 09-10/

SB001B

B. What is the highest grade (or year) at your school? (CIRCLE ONE)

10 11 12 — 11-12/

NOTE: THE QUESTIONS WHICH FOLLOW CONCERN YOUR HIGH SCHOOL. IF YOUR SCHOOL INCLUDES OTHER GRADES ALONG WITH HIGH SCHOOL, PLEASE ANSWER IN TERMS OF YOUR HIGH SCHOOL ONLY.

*2. As of October 1, 1980 (or the nearest date for which data are available), what was the total membership of your high school, and what were the memberships in grades 10 and 12? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

Total high school membership	Grade 10	Grade 12	
SB002A	SB002B	SB002C	13-17/ 18-22/ 23-27/

SB003

3. Is your high school a general (comprehensive) high school, or is it specialized in some way? (That is, is it organized for special purposes, or around a special group of students?) (CIRCLE ONE) — 28/

General (comprehensive) high school 1

Vocational high school ...., 2

(Which occupations?) ____________________

____

School for the physically handicapped 3

(Which types of handicap?) ____________________

____

School for educationally or emotionally handicapped 4

Other (Please describe) ____________________

____________________ 5

SB004

4. What was the total number of students graduated from the 12th grade in the 1978-1979 school year? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

SB004 ____________________ 29-33/

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECKS 01-02

5. How many days are in your school year? SB005 ________ 34-36/

---

6. How many minutes long are your standard class periods? SB006 ________ 37-39/

---

7. How many standard class periods are there in a day? SB007 ________ 40-41/

A. During how many of these class periods does the average student have classes (not study hall, lunch periods, etc.)?

SB007A ________ 42-43/

---

8. What is the approximate average daily percentage attendance in your high school?

SB008 ________ % 44-46/

---

9. Approximately what percentages of your current high school students and current faculty are members of the following groups? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

	Students	Faculty	OFFICE USE ONLY
1) American Indian or Alaska Native	SB0091S %	SB0091F %	47-49/ 50-52/
2) Asian or Pacific Islander (includes: Chinese, Japanese, Filipino, Korean, Vietnamese, Asian Indian, or other Asian)	SB0092S %	SB0092F %	53-55/ 56-58/
3) Hispanic - of Spanish or Latin American origin	SB0093S %	SB0093F %	59-61/ 62-64/
4) Black, not of Hispanic origin	SB0094S %	SB0094F %	65-67/ 68-70/
5) White, not of Hispanic origin	SB0095S %	SB0095F %	BEGIN DECK 02 09-11/ 12-14/

(ENTRIES SHOULD TOTAL TO 100%)

---

10. About what percentage of your high school students speak a language other than English at home? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

SB010 ________ % 15-17/

---

11. To the best of your knowledge, about what percentage of the entire 1978-1979 graduating class is now enrolled in a regular two-year or four-year college?

SB011 ________ % 18-20/

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 02

12. To the best of your knowledge, about what percentage of the 1978-1979 graduating class went on to post-secondary education or training of some kind OTHER THAN A JUNIOR COLLEGE OR FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE (for example, beauty school, vocational-technical school, or business school)? Do not include military service.

SB012 ______ % 21-23/

13. To the best of your knowledge, about what percentage of the 1978-1979 graduating class went into military service? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

SB013 ______ % 24-26/

14. Please estimate the approximate percentage of students who enter the 10th grade but drop out before graduation. Do not include students who transfer to another school.

SB014 ______ % 27-29/

15. During this year, approximately what percentage of your high school students are bused in for racial balance? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

Percentage bused .... SB015 ______ % 30-32/

16. Approximately how many miles is it from this high school to the nearest of each of the following post-secondary institutions that students from this school could attend?

	Miles	
a. A junior or community college	SB016A	33-35/
b. A vocational, technical, trade, or business school	SB016B	36-38/
c. A four-year college or university	SB016C	39-41/

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECKS 02-03

17. Approximately what percentage of your 10th and 12th grade students are in each of the following instructional programs? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

	Percent of 10th grade students	Percent of 12th grade students	
a. General program	SB017AY %	SB017AE %	42-44/ 45-47/
b. Academic or college preparatory	SB017BY %	SB017BE %	48-50/ 51-53/
c. Occupational preparation:			
1. Agricultural occupations	SB017C1Y%	SB017C1E %	54-56/ 57-59/
2. Business or office occupations	SB017C2Y%	SB017C2E %	60-62/ 63-65/
3. Distributive education	SB017C3Y%	SB017C3E %	66-68/ 69-71/
			BEGIN DECK 03
4. Health occupations	SB017C4Y%	SB017C4E %	09-11/ 12-14/
5. Home economics occupations	SB017C5Y%	SB017C5E %	15-17/ 18-20/
6. Trade or industrial occupations	SB017C6Y%	SB017C6E %	21-23/ 24-26/
7. Technical occupations	SB017C7Y%	SB017C7E %	27-29/ 30-32/
d. Other (PLEASE DESCRIBE)	SB017DY %	SB017DE %	33-35/ 36-38/

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 03

18. Please indicate whether each of the following courses are taught in your school as separate courses. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

		Yes	No	
SB018A	a. Second-year algebra	1	2	39/
SB018B	b. Art	3	4	40/
SB018C	c. Auto mechanics	1	2	41/
SB018D	d. Calculus	3	4	42/
SB018E	e. Chemistry	1	2	43/
SB018F	f. Drama	3	4	44/
SB018G	g. Driver training	1	2	45/
SB018H	h. Economics	3	4	46/
SB018I	i. Ethnic Studies or Black Studies	1	2	47/
SB018J	j. Family Life or Sex Education	3	4	48/
SB018K	k. Geometry	1	2	49/
SB018L	l. Third-year Spanish	3	4	50/
SB018M	m. Third-year German	1	2	51/
SB018N	n. Third-year French	3	4	52/
SB018O	o. Home Economics	1	2	53/
SB018P	p. Physics	3	4	54/
SB018Q	q. Psychology	1	2	55/
SB018R	r. Russian	3	4	56/
SB018S	s. Trigonometry	1	2	57/
SB018T	t. Wood or machine shop	3	4	58/

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 03

SB019
19. Does your school use homogeneous grouping (according to ability or achievement) for 10th grade students in English classes? (CIRCLE ONE)

Yes	1	59/
No	2	
Not applicable, no 10th grade	3	

SB020
20. Does your school use homogeneous grouping (according to ability or achievement) for 12th grade students in English classes? (CIRCLE ONE)

Yes	1	60/
No	2	
Not applicable, no 12th grade	3	

21. About what percentage of your 10th grade students are taking remedial work in reading?

SB021 ______ % 61-63/

Not applicable:

Remedial reading not offered	991	
No 10th grade	992	

22. About what percentage of your 10th grade students are taking remedial work in mathematics?

SB022 ______ % 64-66/

Not applicable:

Remedial mathematics not offered	991	
No 10th grade	992	

SB023
23. Are seniors required to pass a minimum competency (proficiency) test in order to receive a High School Diploma? (CIRCLE ONE)

Yes	1	67/
No	2	

[illegible]
24. In what grades is a minimum competency or proficiency test given to all students? (CIRCLE AS MANY NUMBERS AS APPLY)

SB0240	School does not have such a test	0	68/
SB0241	Grade 9	1	69/
SB0242	Grade 10	2	70/
SB0243	Grade 11	3	71/
SB0244	Grade 12	4	72/
SB0245	Given in different grades for different students	5	73/

OFFICE USE ONLY

BEGIN DECK 04

SB025

25. Does the school have a specific remedial program for students who fail the test? (CIRCLE ONE)

School does not have such a test	0	09/
Yes, specific remedial program	1	
No, no such program	2	

SB026

26. In what year was this test first required in this school?

Year:	19 ☐☐	10-11/
School does not have such a test	90	
Test not required	91	

---

27. Which of these facilities are available at your school? (CIRCLE AS MANY NUMBERS AS APPLY)

SB027A	a.	Indoor lounge for students	1	12/
SB027B	b.	Career information center	2	13/
SB027C	c.	Occupational training center	3	14/
SB027D	d.	Media production facilities	4	15/
SB027E	e.	Remedial reading and/or remedial mathematics laboratory	5	16/
SB027F	f.	Subject area resources center(s) other than central library	1	17/
SB027G	g.	Departmental offices	2	18/
SB027H	h.	Teaching resources center for teachers' use	3	19/
SB027I	i.	Child care or nursery school facility	4	20/
SB027J	j.	Student cafeteria	5	21/

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*28. What is the approximate number of catalogued volumes in the school library?

Number of volumes:	SB028 ________	22-26/
No library	0	

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 04

29. A. Please indicate whether or not your school currently offers each of the following programs to students. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

		Offered	Not offered	
SB029AA	a. Credit by contract	1	2	27/
SB029AB	b. Travel for credit	3	4	28/
SB029AC	c. Off-campus work experience or occupational training for credit	1	2	29/
SB029AD	d. College Board Advanced Placement Courses	3	4	30/
SB029AE	e. Student exchange program	1	2	31/
SB029AF	f. Alternative school program	3	4	32/
SB029AG	g. Special program for pregnant girls or mothers	1	2	33/
SB029AH	h. Continuation school	3	4	34/
SB029AI	i. Program for the gifted or talented	1	2	35/
SB029AJ	j. Bilingual program	3	4	36/

B. For each grade listed below, please indicate which of the following subjects are offered by your high school. (CIRCLE AS MANY NUMBERS AS APPLY)

	10th Grade	11th Grade	12th Grade	Not offered in Grades 10-12	
English taught as a second language (either in English or in students' mother tongue)	SB029BA1 1	SB029BA2 2	SB029BA3 3	SB029BA4 4	37-40/
Students' mother tongue taught as a first language (other than English)	SB029BB1 1	SB029BB2 2	SB029BB3 3	SB029BB4 4	41-44/
Courses for language minority students in their group's culture or history	SB029BC1 1	SB029BC2 2	SB029BC3 3	SB029BC4 4	45-48/

---

30. For the time period from January through March, 1980, about what percentage of the 10th and 12th grade students will be engaged in programs (work experience, community service, college courses, or other courses) such that they are not physically present at your school full time?

a. Percent of 10th grade students .... SB030A ______ % 49-51/

b. Percent of 12th grade students .... SB030B ______ % 52-54/

SB031

31. Are some students in your school served by an area vocational school where they may take vocational courses?

Yes	1	55/
No	2	

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK .04:

32. Please indicate whether or not this high school participates or has students who participate in each of the following federally assisted or financed programs. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

		School/Students participate(s)	School/Students do(es) not participate	
SB032A	a. Upward Bound	1	2	56/
SB032B	b. Talent Search	1	2	57/
	c. Elementary and Secondary Education Act:			
SB032C1	1. Title I (Education of children of economically disadvantaged)	1	2	58/
SB032C2	2. Title IV-B (Library and learning resources)	1	2	59/
SB032C3	3. Title IV-C (Educational innovation and support)	1	2	60/
SB032C4	4. Title IV-D (Supplementary educational centers and services)	1	2	61/
SB032C5	5. Title VII (Bilingual education)	1	2	62/
SB032C6	6. Title IX (Ethnic heritage studies)	1	2	63/
SB032D	d. Indian Education Act	1	2	64/
SB032E	e. Emergency School Aid Act (desegregation assistance)	1	2	65/
SB032F	f. School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas	1	2	66/
SB032G	g. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA)	1	2	67/
	h. Vocational Education Act of 1963:			
SB032H1	1. Consumer and Homemaking Education	1	2	68/
SB032H2	2. Vocational Education Basic Programs	1	2	69/
SB032H3	3. Vocational Education for persons with special needs	1	2	70/
SB032H4	4. Cooperative Vocational Education Program	1	2	71/
SB032H5	5. High School Vocational Education Work-Study Program	1	2	72/
SB032I	i. Junior ROTC	1	2	73/

OFFICE USE ONLY

BEGIN DECK 05

33. Please indicate whether or not your school uses each of the following criteria to classify students as handicapped. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

		Yes	No	
SB033A	Standard tests for evaluating specific handicaps	1	2	09/
SB033B	Federal guidelines	1	2	10/
SB033C	State guidelines	1	2	11/
SB033D	Judgments and observations of school counselors and teachers	1	2	12/

34. How many students in your high school are classified as handicapped? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

Number of handicapped students: SB034 ________ 13-16/

35. How does your high school usually accommodate the following types of handicapped students? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

		Attend regular classes only	Attend some special and some regular classes	Attend special classes only	No students with this type of handicap in school	
SB035A	a. Multiple handicapped	1	2	3	4	17/
SB035B	b. Trainable mentally retarded	1	2	3	4	18/
SB035C	c. Educable mentally retarded	1	2	3	4	19/
SB035D	d. Hard of hearing	1	2	3	4	20
SB035E	e. Deaf	1	2	3	4	21
SB035F	f. Deaf-blind	1	2	3	4	22
SB035G	g. Speech impaired	1	2	3	4	23
SB035H	h. Visually impaired	1	2	3	4	24
SB035I	i. Emotionally disturbed	1	2	3	4	25
SB035J	j. Orthopedically impaired	1	2	3	4	26
SB035K	k. Other health impaired	1	2	3	4	27
SB035L	l. Specific learning disabilities	1	2	3	4	2

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 05

36. Please indicate whether or not your school uses each of the following criteria to classify students as disadvantaged. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

	Yes	No	
SB036A Federal guidelines	1	2	29/
SB036B State guidelines	1	2	30/
SB036C Other means	1	2	31/

---

37. About what percentage of the students in your high school are classified as disadvantaged? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

SB037 ______ % 32-34/

SB038

38. Approximately how many colleges sent a representative to talk with interested students in this high school during the 1978-1979 school year? (CIRCLE ONE)

None	01	35-36/
1 or 2	02	
3 to 5	03	
6 to 10	04	
11 to 20	05	
21 or more	06	

---

39. Please indicate the size of your high school's staff in each of the following categories. (ENTER NUMBER OR ZERO ON EACH LINE)

	Number of full-time (or full-time equivalent) personnel	
a. Assistant principals and deans	SB039A	37-39/
b. Counselors	SB039B	40-42/
c. Classroom teachers	SB039C	43-45/
d. Curriculum specialists	SB039D	46-48/
e. Remedial specialists	SB039E	49-51/
f. Librarians/media specialists	SB039F	52-54/
g. Psychologists	SB039G	55-57/
h. Teaching aides	SB039H	58-60/
i. Student teachers	SB039I	61-63/
j. Volunteers	SB039J	64-66/
k. Contributed services	SB039K	67-69/
l. Security guards	SB039L	70-72/

OFFICE USE ONLY

BEGIN DECK 06

40. About what percentage of the professional (teaching and non-teaching) staff at your high school are female? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

SB040 ____ % 09-11/

---

41. About what percentage of the students are female? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

SB041 ____ % 12-14/

---

42. About what percentage of the full-time high school teachers have Master's or Doctor's degrees?

SB042 ____ % 15-17/

---

43. What percentage of full-time high school teachers in this school at the end of the 1978-1979 school year have since left for reasons other than death or retirement?

SB043 ____ % 18-20/

---

44. What is the approximate average daily percentage of teacher absenteeism in your high school?

SB044 ____ % 21-23/

---

45. About what percentage of your teaching staff has been at your school for ten years or more?

SB045 ____ % 24-26/

---

46. Approximately what percentage of the teachers in your high school live within 5 miles of this school?

SB046 ____ % 27-29/

---

47. In your school, what is the first step on an annual salary contract schedule for a beginning certified teacher with a bachelor's degree?

$ SB047 ____ 30-34/

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 06

48. What provisions are there for giving the students with mental-health problems professional assistance? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

		Is provided	Is not provided	
SB048A	a. A psychologist or psychiatrist (full time)	1	2	35/
SB048B	b. A psychologist or psychiatrist (part time)	1	2	36/
SB048C	c. A guidance counselor trained in psychological counseling	1	2	37/
SB048D	d. A referral arrangement with a mental-health clinic	1	2	38/
SB048E	e. Other (SPECIFY) ________________	1	2	39/

49. Which of the following unions or labor associations represent teachers in your high school in contract negotiations? (CIRCLE AS MANY NUMBERS AS APPLY)

SB049A	American Federation of Teachers	1	40/
SB049B	National Education Association	2	41/
SB049C	Other (SPECIFY) ________________	3	42/
SB049D	None	4	43/

SB050A

50. A. When was the last school bond issue or school tax increase referendum voted on in your school district? (Private schools, please answer for the district in which your school is located.) (CIRCLE ONE)

1980	01	44-45/
1979	02	
1978	03	
1977	04	
1976	05	
1975	06	
Between 1969 and 1974	07	
Before 1969	08	
Have not held bond referendum	09	

SB050B

B. Did it pass? (CIRCLE ONE)

Yes	1	46/
No	2	
Does not apply	3	

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 06

SB051
*51. Is the school district presently operating under a court desegregation order? (CIRCLE ONE)

Yes	1	47/
No	2	

SB052
52. Is your school part of a separate school taxation district? (That is, is the school taxation district separate from the city or municipality taxation district?) (CIRCLE ONE)

Yes	1	48/
No	2	
Private school, does not apply	3	

---

*53. A. Including funds from all sources, what is your school district's current average per-pupil expenditure (excepting for capital outlay and debt service?)

$ SB053A per pupil 49-52/

B. If the figure is available, what is the per-pupil expenditure for your high school (excepting for capital outlay and debt service)?

$ SB053B per pupil 53-56/

---

54. Listed below are certain rules which some schools have. Please indicate whether or not each is enforced in your high school. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

		Yes	No	
SB054A	a. School grounds closed to students at lunch	1	2	57/
SB054B	b. Students responsible to the school for property damage	3	4	58/
SB054C	c. Hall passes required	1	2	59/
SB054D	d. "No smoking" rules	3	4	60/
SB054E	e. Rules about student dress	1	2	61/

OFFICE USE ONLY

BEGIN DECK 07

SB055

55. Which of the following best describes the practices for assignment of pupils to your high school? (CIRCLE ONE)

All pupils in a particular geographic area (or district) attend this school	01	09-10/
Pupils in this particular geographic area (or district) are generally assigned to this school but transfers are frequently allowed	02	
Pupils are assigned to this school on the basis of an entrance test or another achievement criterion	03	
Pupils are assigned from particular areas in order to achieve a desired racial or ethnic composition in the school	04	
Other (SPECIFY) ______________________	05	
Private school, does not apply	06	

56. To what degree is each of these matters a problem in your high school? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER ON EACH LINE)

		Serious	Moderate	Minor	Not at all	
SB056A	a. Student absenteeism	1	2	3	4	11/
SB056B	b. Students' cutting classes	1	2	3	4	12/
SB056C	c. Parents' lack of interest in students' progress	1	2	3	4	13/
SB056D	d. Parents' lack of interest in school matters	1	2	3	4	14/
SB056E	e. Teacher absenteeism	1	2	3	4	15/
SB056F	f. Teachers' lack of commitment or motivation	1	2	3	4	16/
SB056G	g. Physical conflicts among students	1	2	3	4	17/
SB056H	h. Conflicts between students and teachers	1	2	3	4	18/
SB056I	i. Robbery or theft	1	2	3	4	19/
SB056J	j. Vandalism of school property	1	2	3	4	
SB056K	k. Student use of drugs or alcohol	1	2	3	4	21
SB056L	l. Rape or attempted rape	1	2	3	4	[illegible]
SB056M	m. Student possession of weapons	1	2	3	4	23/
SB056N	n. Verbal abuse of teachers	1	2	3	4	24/

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 07

SB057

57. Have the teachers in your school gone on strike in the past 4 years? (CIRCLE ONE)

Yes ..... (DURATION OF LAST STRIKE: SB057A)	1		25/
No	2		26-27/

SB058

58. What type of grading system is used in your high school? (CIRCLE ONE)

Letter grade .... (ANSWER A & B)	1		28/
Grade-point or other numerical grade ..... (ANSWER A)	2		
Other (PLEASE DESCRIBE) ______________________	3		

A. What is the lowest passing grade in your high school? (If letter grade, please estimate numerical equivalent.)

Lowest passing grade: SB058A — 29-30/

SB058B B. Please provide numerical estimates for the letter grades used in your high school in the space provided below.

SB059

59. Is your high school a public school or a private school? (CIRCLE ONE)

Public school	1	- FINISHED, Thank you.	31/
Private school: religious (SPECIFY RELIGION) ____________	2	PROCEED TO Q. 60	
Private school: other	3	PROCEED TO Q. 60	

---

60. Approximately what percentage of your high school funds (excepting for capital outlay and debt service) are accounted for from the following sources?

Tuition	SB060A	%	32-34/
Fund raising (parents or school)	SB060B	%	35-37/
Subsidies:			
Parish or religious organizations	SB060C1	%	38-40/
Foundations or companies	SB060C2	%	41-43/
Endowment	SB060D	%	44-46/
Federal or state funds	SB060E	%	47-49/
Other (SPECIFY) ______________	SB060F	%	50-52/

(ENTRIES SHOULD TOTAL TO 100%)

OFFICE USE ONLY

DECK 07

61. How much is the annual tuition for a high school student at this school?

$ SB061 — 53-56/

62. What percentage of your high school students have scholarships covering part or all of their tuition? (IF NONE, WRITE "0")

SB062 % — 57-59/

SB063

63. Who has legal ownership of your high school? (CIRCLE ONE)

The school itself or school governing board	1	60/
A religious order	2	
A religious organization (other than a religious order)	3	
A non-religious organization	4	
Other (SPECIFY) ______________________________	5	

SB064

64. Who selects the principal/head for your high school? (CIRCLE ONE)

Governing board of school	1	61/
Leadership of religious order	2	
Central office or area administrators of religious organization	3	
Ad hoc committee of parents and faculty	4	
Other (SPECIFY) ______________________________	5	

SB065

65. If a religious school, does your high school admit students from other religious denominations? (CIRCLE ONE)

Not a religious school	1	62/
Yes, a religious school which admits students from all denominations	2	
No, a religious school which admits only students from own denomination	3	
Other (SPECIFY) ______________________________	4	

Appendix 1d
Sr/TC 4278
1980

Form Approved
FEDAC No. S99
App. Exp. 12/80

HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND

High School and Beyond is sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics, an agency of the United States Department of Education.

TEACHER'S COMMENT FORM — SENIOR STUDENTS

Dear Teacher,
The National Center for Education Statistics is authorized by Section 406 of the General Education Provisions Act (20 USC 1221e-1) to collect and report statistics on the condition of education in the United States. While you are not required to respond, your cooperation is needed to provide information which will be used to aid in the interpretation of data about students in the survey, HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND.

These forms contain some questions about your impressions of each of the sampled students whom you have had in class during this school year and a few background questions. Instructions for filling out the forms are inside.

If you would like more information about High School and Beyond, please call Dr. Carol Stocking collect at (312) 753-1514. Thank you for your help.

CONFIDENTIAL

All information which would permit identification of the individual will be held in strict confidence, will be used only by persons engaged in and for the purposes of this survey, and will not be disclosed or released to others for any purposes except as required by law.

**Prepared for the National Center
for Education Statistics by the
National Opinion Research Center
NCES Form 2409-15**

Please answer the questions by filling in the appropriate circle with a No. 2 pencil (Y= YES, N= NO, DK= DON'T KNOW). Then detach and destroy this name page. Mail the Comment Forms directly back to Westinghouse DataScore Systems in the enclosed Postage Prepaid envelope. Thank you.

STUDENT NAMES

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2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9

Y = YES
N = NO
DK = DON'T KNOW

NOTE: **Columns 4-10 apply only to those students for whom you have answered "YES" in column 3. These seven questions request your impressions of the student, without consultation of school records.**

				IF YES TO 3: PLEASE INDICATE WHETHER THIS STUDENT (IN YOUR OPINION):						
	1. Do you know this student?	2. Do you know a parent of this student?	3. Have you had the student in class since September 1979?	4. will probably go to college	5. is working up to potential	6. seems popular with others	7. has talked with me outside of class about school work or plans	8. seems to dislike school	9. has the kind of self-discipline to hold a job	10. has or may have a physical or emotional handicap that is affecting his or her school work
51	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
52	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
53	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
54	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
55	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
56	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
57	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
58	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
59	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
60	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
61	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
62	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
63	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
64	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
65	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
66	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
67	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
68	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
69	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
70	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
71	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
72	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
73	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
74	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
75	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
76	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
77	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
78	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
79	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
80	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
81	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
82	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
83	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
84	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
85	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
86	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
87	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
88	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
89	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
90	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
91	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK

Appendix 1e
So/TC 4278
1980

Form Approved
FEDAC No. S99
App. Exp. 12/80

HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND

High School and Beyond is sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics, an agency of the United States Department of Education.

Ⓦ 07564-001

TEACHER'S COMMENT FORM — SOPHOMORE STUDENTS

Dear Teacher,
The National Center for Education Statistics is authorized by Section 406 of the General Education Provisions Act (20 USC 1221e-1) to collect and report statistics on the condition of education in the United States. While you are not required to respond, your cooperation is needed to provide information which will be used to aid in the interpretation of data about students in the survey, HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND.

These forms contain some questions about your impressions of each of the sampled students whom you have had in class during this school year and a few background questions. Instructions for filling out the forms are inside.

If you would like more information about High School and Beyond, please call Dr. Carol Stocking collect at (312) 753-1514. Thank you for your help.

CONFIDENTIAL

All information which would permit identification of the individual will be held in strict confidence, will be used only by persons engaged in and for the purposes of this survey, and will not be disclosed or released to others for any purposes except as required by law.

Prepared for the National Center
for Education Statistics by the
National Opinion Research Center
NCES Form 2409-15

Please answer the questions by filling in the appropriate circle with a No. 2 pencil (Y= YES, N= NO, DK= DON'T KNOW). After you have completed the questions about Sophomores, fill in the background questions on the back of the form. (Then detach and destroy this name page.) Next, please complete the parallel set of questions about Seniors, detach and destroy that name page, and mail the Comment Forms directly back to Westinghouse DataScore Systems in the enclosed Postage Prepaid envelope. Thank you.

STUDENT NAMES

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0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9	9

Y = YES
N = NO
DK = DON'T KNOW

NOTE: Columns 4-10 apply only to those students for whom you have answered "YES" in column 3. These seven questions request your impressions of the student, without consultation of school records.

				IF YES TO 3: PLEASE INDICATE WHETHER THIS STUDENT (IN YOUR OPINION):						
	1. Do you know this student?	2. Do you know a parent of this student?	3. Have you had the student in class since September 1979?	4. will probably go to college	5. is working up to potential	6. seems popular with others	7. has talked with me outside of class about school work or plans	8. seems to dislike school	9. has the kind of self-discipline to hold a job	10. has or may have a physical or emotional handicap that is affecting his or her school work
1	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
2	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
3	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
4	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
5	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
6	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
7	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
8	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
9	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
10	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
11	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
12	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
13	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
14	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
15	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
16	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
17	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
18	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
19	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
20	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
21	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
22	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
23	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
24	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
25	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
26	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
27	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
28	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
29	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
30	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
31	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
32	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
33	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
34	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
35	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
36	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
37	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
38	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
39	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
40	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK
41	Y N	Y N	Y N	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK	Y N DK

It would help us in our analysis if you would provide the following background information:

11. What subjects have you taught since last September in this school? (MARK ALL THAT APPLY)

Taught this year
○ English
○ Art, music
○ History, geography
○ Home economics
○ Chemistry, physics
○ Biology, botany, zoology
○ Languages

Taught this year
○ Health, physical education
○ Industrial, technical or trade
○ Mathematics
○ Distributive education, business, office
○ Social sciences
○ Other (SPECIFY)____________________

12. A. Please think about the classes you taught last semester. If you think of the best behaved group that you taught last semester, on the average about what proportion of every class meeting did you have to devote to maintaining order?

○ Almost none
○ About 5 percent
○ About 10 percent
○ About 20 percent
○ 30 percent or more

B. Next, think about the group with the most behavior problems that you taught last semester. About what proportion of every class meeting did you devote to maintaining order with that group/class?

○ Almost none
○ About 5 percent
○ About 10 percent
○ About 20 percent
○ 30 percent or more

13. Are you:

○ female or
○ male

14. Are you:

○ American Indian or Alaskan Native
○ Asian or Pacific Islander (includes: Chinese, Japanese, Filipino, Korean, Vietnamese, Asian Indian, or other Asian)
Hispanic - of Spanish or Latin American origin, such as:
  ○ Mexican, Mexican-American, Mexicano, Chicano
  ○ Cuban, Cubano
  ○ Puerto Rican, Puertoriqueno, Boricua
  ○ Other Latin American, Latino, Hispano, or Spanish descent
○ Black, not of Hispanic origin
○ White, not of Hispanic origin

Appendix 1f
SR/T 4278
1980

SENIOR TEST BOOKLET

HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND

High School and Beyond is sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics, an agency of the United States Department of Education.

There are several kinds of tests in this booklet. Each test is timed and has its own instructions. You will be given time to read the instructions before you begin work on the test.

You've probably taken tests like these before, but this time no one in your school will see your test results. The important thing about these tests is that you will be representing thousands of other students like yourself. Your individual answers will be regarded as strictly confidential. They will be combined with answers from other students and will never be identified as yours. Your participation is voluntary.

STOP! DO NOT OPEN THIS BOOKLET
UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.

STATE:

SCHOOL NO:

STUDENT NO:

Prepared for the National
Center for Education
Statistics by the
Educational Testing Service
NCES Form 2409-12

GENERAL DIRECTIONS

12th Grade

This test has seven sections, and two sections have two parts. During the time allowed for each section or part, you are to work only on it. The time limit for each section or part is printed at the beginning of the section or part and the supervisor will tell you when to begin and when to stop. If you finish before time is called, go back and check your work on that section or part only.

Your score on each section except Sections 6 and 7 will be the number of correct answers minus a percentage of the number of incorrect answers. Therefore, on Sections 1 through 5 it will not be to your advantage to guess unless you are able to eliminate one or more of the answer choices.

Mark all of your answers by filling in the oval next to the appropriate answer.

Use only the lead pencil you have been given.

Make heavy black marks inside the ovals.

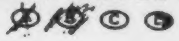
Be sure that the entire oval is blackened.

If you wish to change an answer, erase your first mark completely.

This kind of mark will work:

Ⓐ Ⓑ ● Ⓓ

These marks will NOT work:



CONTENTS OF TEST BOOK

Section 1	Vocabulary	
	Part 1	5 minutes
	Part 2	4 minutes
Section 2	Reading	15 minutes
Section 3	Mathematics	
	Part 1	15 minutes
	Part 2	4 minutes
Section 4	Picture-Number	5 minutes
Section 5	Mosaic Comparisons	
	Part 1	3 minutes
	Part 2	3 minutes
Section 6	Visualization in Three Dimensions	9 minutes
Section 7	Questions About Testing	5 minutes

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.

429

SECTION 1
VOCABULARY

Part 1: Time—5 minutes
15 Questions
Part 2: Time—4 minutes
12 Questions

Part 1
15 Questions

Directions: Each of the questions in this test consists of one word followed by five words or phrases. Select the one word or phrase whose meaning is closest to that of the word in capital letters and blacken the corresponding oval.

SECTION 2
READING

Time—15 minutes

20 Questions

Directions: Each passage is followed by questions based on its content. After reading a passage, choose the best answer to each question and blacken the corresponding oval. Answer all questions following a passage on the basis of what is stated or implied in that passage.

SECTION 3
MATHEMATICS

Part 1: Time-15 minutes
25 Questions
Part 2: Time—4 minutes
8 Questions

Directions: Each problem in this section consists of two quantities, one placed in Column A and one in Column B. You are to compare the two quantities and mark oval

- **A** if the quantity in Column A is greater;
- **B** if the quantity in Column B is greater;
- **C** if the two quantities are equal;
- **D** if the size relationship cannot be determined from the information given.

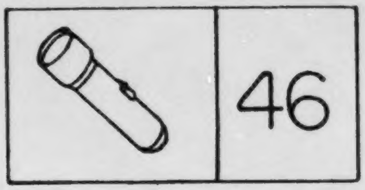
	Sample Questions Column A	Column B	Sample Answers
Example 1.	20 per cent of 10	10 per cent of 20	Ⓐ Ⓑ ● Ⓓ
Example 2.	6 × 6	12 + 12	● Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ

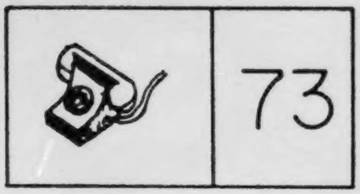
Answer C is marked in Example 1 since the quantity in Column A is equal to the quantity in Column B. Answer A is marked for Example 2 since the quantity in Column A is greater than the quantity in Column B.

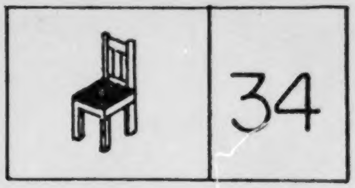
DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.

SECTION 4
PICTURE-NUMBER
Time—5 minutes
15 Questions

Directions: This is a test of your ability to remember picture-number combinations. First, you will have three minutes to study a page of fifteen pictures with numbers. On the study page the picture-number pairs will look like this:



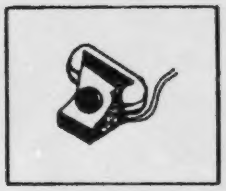




After studying the page showing both pictures and numbers, you will be told to turn to the page showing the pictures in a different order.

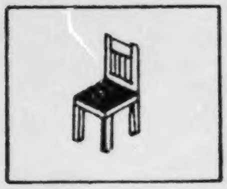
Examples:

1.



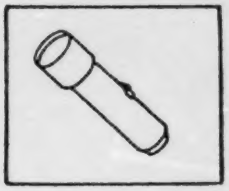
12 ○ 57 ○
24 ○ 65 ○
31 ○ 73 ○
44 ○ 77 ○
51 ○ 92 ○

2.



15 ○ 55 ○
27 ○ 62 ○
34 ○ 75 ○
41 ○ 82 ○
46 ○ 89 ○

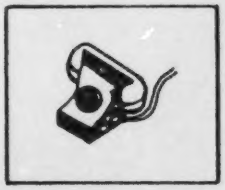
3.



13 ○ 58 ○
19 ○ 62 ○
28 ○ 67 ○
34 ○ 73 ○
46 ○ 97 ○

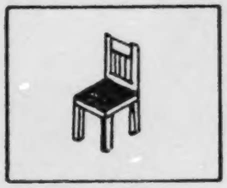
Beside each picture there are ten ovals with numbers beside them for each picture. One of the numbers will be the number that goes with the picture. You are to blacken the oval with that number beside it. You will have two minutes to do this page.

1.



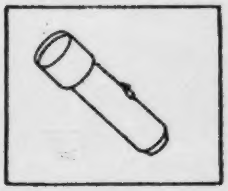
12 ○ 57 ○
24 ○ 65 ○
31 ○ 73 ●
44 ○ 77 ○
51 ○ 92 ○

2.



15 ○ 55 ○
27 ○ 62 ○
34 ● 75 ○
41 ○ 82 ○
46 ○ 89 ○

3.



13 ○ 58 ○
19 ○ 62 ○
28 ○ 67 ○
34 ○ 73 ○
46 ● 97 ○

The number that goes with the picture of a telephone is 73, so for example 1 you would blacken the oval with 73 beside it. For example 2 you would blacken the oval with 34 beside it. For example 3 you would blacken the oval with 46 beside it.

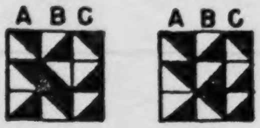
DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.

SECTION 5
MOSAIC COMPARISONS

Part 1: Time—3 minutes
56 Questions
Part 2: Time—3 minutes
33 Questions

Directions: This test consists of pairs of mosaics, that is, patterns of squares like those found on tiled floors or walls. Each mosaic is made up of a number of partially shaded squares. The mosaics in each pair are identical except for one square which differs in shading. The vertical columns of both mosaics are labeled A to C or A to D according to the number of columns in the mosaic. Your task will be to locate, for each pair of mosaics, the column that contains the single square which is shaded differently. Then mark the oval that corresponds to the letter at the head of that column.

Sample Question

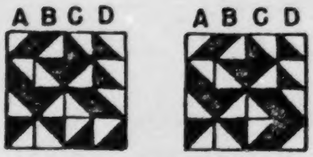
1.


Sample Answer

1. Ⓐ ● Ⓒ

In sample question 1, the right-hand and left-hand mosaics are identical except for the center square of column B, so the oval marked B is blackened in the sample answer.

Sample Question

2.


Sample Answer

2. Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ ●

In sample question 2, the bottom square in column D is the one that is different, so the oval marked D is blackened in the sample answer.

There are two parts to this test. All the mosaics in a single part are the same size. During the three minutes allowed for each part, you are to work on that part only. Do not move ahead to the next part until you are told to do so. Remember only one square is different for each pair of mosaics.

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.

SECTION 6

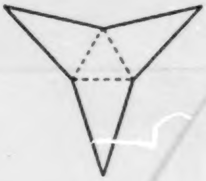
VISUALIZATION IN THREE DIMENSIONS

Time—9 minutes

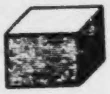
Directions: Each problem in this test has a drawing of a flat piece of metal at the left. At the right are shown five objects, only one of which might be made by folding the flat piece of metal along the dotted line. You are to pick out the one of these five objects which shows just how the piece of flat metal will look when it is folded at the dotted lines. When it is folded, no piece of metal overlaps any other piece, or is enclosed inside the object. On this test your score will be the number of correct answers.

Now look at example 1 below.

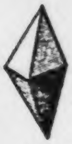
Example 1:



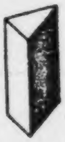
Sample Question



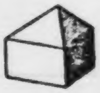
Ⓐ



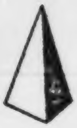
Ⓑ



Ⓒ



Ⓓ



●

Of the five objects shown, only E could be made from the flat piece shown at the left by folding it at each of the dotted lines. E shows how the flat piece would look after being folded. Therefore, oval E would be marked.

Remember, all folds are indicated by dotted lines; the solid lines show the cuts in the piece, and parts are not folded inside of other parts of any objects (in other words, there is no overlapping).

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Form Approved
FEDAC No. S99
App. Exp: 12/80

As a matter of policy, the National Center for Education Statistics is concerned with protecting the privacy of individuals who participate in voluntary surveys. We want to let you know that:

1. Section 406 of the General Education Provisions Act (20 USC 1221e-1) allows us to ask you these questions.
2. Your responses will be merged with those of other students, and the answers you give will never be identified as yours.

436

SECTION 7
QUESTIONS ABOUT THE TESTS
Time—5 minutes

Now that you have completed the tests, we would appreciate your telling us how you felt about taking them. The information you fill in will help us to understand better how tests should or should not be used in high schools. We would like to know your own views and reactions; your responses will not affect your test scores in any way and will be treated as confidential information.

1. Today you have taken six tests that were intended to measure different abilities or areas of knowledge. These areas are:

a. Vocabulary
b. Reading
c. Mathematics
d. Picture-Number
e. Mosaic Comparisons
f. Visualization in Three Dimensions

How important do you think each of these six abilities will be to you in your own future? For each test in the list below, please mark oval A, B, C, or D. Make one mark for each test.

	Of little importance	Fairly important	Very important	Don't know
Vocabulary and Reading Tests	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ
Mathematics Test	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ
Picture-Number, Mosaic Comparisons, and Visualization in Three Dimensions	Ⓐ	Ⓑ	Ⓒ	Ⓓ

2. How concerned were you about doing very well on these tests? Mark one.

Ⓐ Not concerned at all
Ⓑ Only slightly concerned
Ⓒ Somewhat concerned
Ⓓ Very concerned

3. How much did you enjoy taking the tests? Mark one.

Ⓐ Not at all
Ⓑ Only to a limited degree
Ⓒ Somewhat
Ⓓ A great deal

4. On the whole, how well do you think your scores on the six tests will show your real ability? Mark one.

Ⓐ My real ability is probably higher than my scores will show.
Ⓑ My scores will probably be about right.
Ⓒ My real ability is probably lower than my scores will show.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.

5. **How did you feel while you were taking the tests? Please mark YES or NO after each word or phrase.**

		YES	NO
a.	Calm	○	○
b.	Interested in the tests	○	○
c.	Distracted by things going on in the room	○	○
d.	Afraid of not doing well	○	○
e.	Bored	○	○
f.	Eager to do my very best	○	○
g.	Angry or annoyed	○	○
h.	Under a lot of pressure	○	○
i.	Involved in taking the tests	○	○
j.	Under a lot of strain to do well	○	○
k.	Able to concentrate well on the tests	○	○
l.	Uneasy	○	○
m.	Uncomfortable	○	○
n.	Distracted by noices outside	○	○
o.	Confident in myself	○	○
p.	Rather tired	○	○
q.	Feeling that the tests don't matter much	○	○
r.	Often thinking about something else	○	○
s.	Very tense	○	○
t.	Nervous or jittery	○	○

6. **If you would like to add any comments or explain any of your answers to these questions about testing, please use the space below:**

Appendix 1g
SO/T 4278
1980

SOPHOMORE TEST BOOKLET

HIGH SCHOOL AND BEYOND

High School and Beyond is sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics, an agency of the United States Department of Education.

There are several kinds of tests in this booklet. Each test is timed and has its own instructions. You will be given time to read the instructions before you begin work on the test.

You've probably taken tests like these before, but this time no one in your school will see your test results. The important thing about these tests is that you will be representing thousands of other students like yourself. Your individual answers will be regarded as strictly confidential. They will be combined with answers from other students and will never be identified as yours. Your participation is voluntary.

STOP! DO NOT OPEN THIS BOOKLET
UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.

STATE:

SCHOOL NO:

STUDENT NO:

Prepared for the National
Center for Education
Statistics by the
Educational Testing Service
NCES Form 2409-11

GENERAL DIRECTIONS

10th Grade

This test has six sections, and one section has two parts. During the time allowed for each section or part, you are to work only on it. The time limit for each section or part is printed at the beginning of the section or part, and the supervisor will tell you when to begin and when to stop. If you finish a section or part before time is called, go back and check your work on that section or part only.

Your score on each section will be the number of correct answers minus a percentage of the number of incorrect answers. Therefore, it will not be to your advantage to guess unless you are able to eliminate one or more of the answer choices.

Answer each question by marking one of the answer ovals as no credit will be given for anything written elsewhere in the test book.

Use only the lead pencil you have been given.

This kind of mark will work:

Ⓐ Ⓑ ● Ⓓ

Make heavy black marks inside the ovals.

Be sure that the entire oval is blackened.

These marks will NOT work:

Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ

If you wish to change an answer, erase your first mark completely.

CONTENTS OF TEST BOOK

Section 1	Vocabulary	7 minutes
Section 2	Reading	15 minutes
Section 3	Mathematics	
	Part 1	16 minutes
	Part 2	5 minutes
Section 4	Science	10 minutes
Section 5	Writing	10 minutes
Section 6	Civics Education	5 minutes

SECTION 1
VOCABULARY
Time—7 minutes
21 Questions

Directions: Each of the questions in this test consists of one word followed by five words or phrases. Select the one word or phrase whose meaning is closest to that of the word in capital letters and blacken the corresponding oval.

Sample Question	Sample Answer
CHILLY:	CHILLY:
Ⓐ lazy	Ⓐ lazy
Ⓑ nice	Ⓑ nice
Ⓒ dry	Ⓒ dry
Ⓓ cold	● cold
Ⓔ sunny	Ⓔ sunny

In order to find the correct answer, you look at the word chilly and then look for a word below it that has the same or almost the same meaning. When you do this, you see that cold, choice D, is the answer because cold is closest in meaning to the word chilly.

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SECTION 2

READING

Time—15 minutes

20 Questions

Directions: Each passage is followed by questions based on its content. After reading a passage, choose the best answer to each question and blacken the corresponding oval. Answer all questions following a passage on the basis of what is stated or implied in that passage.

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SECTION 3
MATHEMATICS

Part 1: Time—16 minutes
28 Questions
Part 2: Time—5 minutes
10 Questions

Directions: Each problem in this section consists of two quantities, one placed in Column A and one in Column B. You are to compare the two quantities and mark the oval

- **A** if the quantity in Column A is greater;
- **B** if the quantity in Column B is greater;
- **C** if the two quantities are equal;
- **D** if the size relationship cannot be determined from the information given.

	Sample Questions		Sample Answers
	Column A	**Column B**	
Example 1.	20 per cent of 10	10 per cent of 20	Ⓐ Ⓑ ● Ⓓ
Example 2.	6 × 6	12 + 12	● Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ

Oval C is marked in Example 1 since the quantity in Column A is equal to the quantity in Column B. Oval A is marked for Example 2 since the quantity in Column A is greater than the quantity in Column B.

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SECTION 4
SCIENCE
Time—10 minutes
20 Questions

DIRECTIONS: Carefully read each question and any material that relates to it. Then, choose the best answer and blacken the corresponding oval.

DO NOT TURN THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO.

444

SECTION 5
WRITING
Time—10 minutes
17 Questions

Directions Carefully read each question and any material that relates to it. Then, choose the best answer and blacken the corresponding oval.

Sample Question

For Example Question find the error in punctuation or capitalization. There is only one error.

Example. All of the letters_magazines, and_newspapers on his desk were dated
A B
July_18, 1969.
C D

The correct answer to this question is A because a comma should be placed after "letters."

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SECTION 6

CIVICS EDUCATION

Time—5 minutes

10 Questions

Directions: Carefully read each question and any material that relates to it. Then, choose the best answer and blacken the corresponding oval.

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446

Appendix 2. MASTER LIST OF ITEMS--Student Questionnaires

Variable Identifier	Senior Q No.	Sophomore Q No.	Senior 1972
EB001	1		BQ1
YB003		3	
YB004		4	
YB005		5	
BB003	2	1	BQ2
YB002		2	
EB003A	3A		BQ4A
EB003B	3B		BQ4B
EB003C	3C		BQ4C
EB003D	3D		BQ4D
EB003E	3E		BQ4F
EB003F	3F		BQ4G
EB004A	4A		
EB004B	4B		
EB004C	4C		
EB004D	4D		
EB004E	4E		
EB004F	4F		
EB004G	4G		
EB004H	4H		
EB004I	4I		
EB004J	4J		
EB004K	4K		
YB006A		6A	
YB006B		6B	
YB006C		6C	
YB006D		6D	
YB006E		6E	
YB006F		6F	
YB006G		6G	
YB006H		6H	
YB006I		6I	
YB006J		6J	
YB006K		6K	
YB009A		9A	
YB009B		9B	
YB009C		9C	
YB009D		9D	
YB009E		9E	
YB009F		9F	
YB009G		9G	
YB009H		9H	
YB009I		9I	
YB009J		9J	
YB009K		9K	
EB005A	5A		
EB005B	5B		
EB005C	5C		
EB005D	5D		
EB005E	5E		

EB005F	5F		
EB005G	5G		
BB006A	6A	10A	
BB006B	6B	10B	
BB006C	6C	10C	
BB006D	6D	10D	
BB006E1	6E-1	10E-1	
BB006E2	6E-2	10E-2	
BB006E3	6E-3	10E-3	
BB006E4	6E-4	10E-4	
BB006F	6F	10F	
BB006G	6G	10G	
BB006H	6H	10H	
BB006I	6I	10I	
BB006J	6J	10J	
BB006K	6K	10K	
BB006L	6L	10L	
BB006M	6M	10M	
BB006N	6N	10N	
BB006O	6O	10O	
BB006P	6P	10P	
EB006Q	6Q		
BB007	7	7	BQ5
BB008AA	8A-B	8A-A	
BB008AB	8A-B	8A-B	
BB008AC	8A-C	8A-C	
BB008AD	8A-D	8A-D	
BB008BA	8B-A	8B-A	
BB008BB	8B-B	8B-B	
BB008BC	8B-C	8B-C	
BB008BD	8B-D	8B-D	
BB008CA	8C-A	8C-A	
BB008CB	8C-B	8C-B	
BB008CC	8C-C	8C-C	
BB008CD	8C-D	8C-D	
BB008DA	8D-A	8D-A	
BB008DB	8D-B	8D-B	
BB008DC	8D-C	8D-C	
BB008DD	8D-D	8D-D	
BB009A	9A		
EB009B	9B		
EB009C	9C		
EB010	10		
YB011		11	
YB012		12	
BB011A	11A	13A	
BB011B	11B	13B	
BB011C	11C	13C	
BB011D	11D	13D	
BB011E	11E	13E	
BB011F	11F	13F	
BB011G	11G	13G	
BB011H	11H	13H	

BB011I	11I	13I	
EB012	12		
EB013	13		
BB014A	14A	14A	BQ6A
BB014B	14B	14B	BQ6B
BB014C	14C	14C	BQ6D
BB014D	14D	14D	BQ6E
BB014E	14E	14E	
BB014F	14F	14F	
BB014G	14G	14G	
BB014H	14H	14H	
BB014I	14I	14I	
BB015	15	15	BQ7
YB016A		16A	
YB016B		16B	
YB016C		16C	
BB016	16	17	
BB017	17	18	
YB019A		19A	
YB019B		19B	
YB019C		19C	
YB019D		19D	
YB019E		19E	
YB019F		19F	
YB020A		20A	
YB020B		20B	
YB020C		20C	
YB020D		20D	
YB020E		20E	
BB018	18	21	
BB019	19	22	
BB020	20	23	
BB021	21	24	
BB022	22	25	BQ8
BB023	23	26	
BB024	24	27	
BB025	25	28	
BB026	26	29	
BB027A	27A	30A	
BB027B	27B	30B	
BB027C	27C	30C	
BB027D	27D	30D	
BB027E	27E	30E	
BB028	28	31	
BB029	29	32	
EB030	30		
EB031	31		
EB032A	32A		
BB032B	32B	34A	BQ10A
BB032C	32C	34B	BQ10B
BB032D	32D	34C	BQ10C
BB032E	32E	34D	BQ10C
BB032F	32F	34E	BQ10C

BB032G	32G	34F	BQ10D
EB032H	32H		BQ10E
EB032I	32I		BQ10F
BB032J	32J	34G	BQ10G
EB032K	32K		BQ10H
BB032L	32L	34H	BQ10I
BB032M	32M	34I	
BB032N	32N	34J	
BB032O	32O	34K	
YB034L		34L	
EB033	33		
EB034	34		
EB035A	35A		BQ19A
EB035B	35B		BQ19D
EB035C	35C		BQ19E
EB035D	35D		BQ19F
EB035E	35E		BQ19I
YB035A		35A	
YB035B		35B	
YB035C		35C	
YB035D		35D	
YB035E		35E	
YB035F		35F	
YB035G		35G	
YB035H		35H	
BB036A	36A	36A	
BB036B	36B	36B	
BB036C	36C	36C	
BB036D	36D	36D	
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BB036H	36H	36H	
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BB036J	36J	36J	
BB036K	36K	36K	
BB037A	37A	37A	
BB037B	37B	37B	
BB037C	37C	37C	
BB038	38	38	BQ25B
BB039	39	39	BQ90A
BB040	40	40	
BB041	41	41	BQ25C
BB042	42	42	BQ90B
BB043	43	43	
BB044	44	44	
BB045	45	45	
BB046A	46A	46A	
BB046B	46B	46B	
BB046C	46C	46C	
BB047A	47A	47A	
BB047B	47B	47B	
BB047C	47C	47C	

BB047D	47D	47D	
BB047E	47E	47E	
BB047F	47F	47F	
BB047G	47G	47G	
BB047H	47H	47H	
BB048	48	48	
YB049A		49A	BQ3A
YB049B		49B	BQ3A
YB049C		49C	BQ3C
YB049D		49D	BQ3D
YB049E		49E	BQ3B and BQ3G
EB049A	49A		BQ14A
EB049B	49B		BQ14A
EB049C	49C		BQ14C
EB049D	49D		BQ14D
EB049E	49E		BQ14B and BQ14I
EB049F	49F		
EB049G	49G		
BB050A	50A	50A	
BB050B	50B	50B	
BB050C	50C	50C	
BB050D	50D	50D	
BB050E	50E	50E	
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BB051B	51B	51B	
BB051C	51C	51C	
BB051D	51D	51D	
BB051E	51E	51E	
YB052AA		52A-A	
YB052AB		52A-B	
YB052BA		52B-A	
YB052BB		52B-B	
YB052CA		52C-A	
YB052CB		52C-B	
YB053A		53A	
YB053B		53B	
YB053C		53C	
YB053D		53D	
YB053E		53E	
YB053F		53F	
YB053G		53G	
YB054A		54A	
YB054B		54B	
YB054C		54C	
YB054D		54D	
YB054E		54E	
YB054F		54F	
YB055		55	
YB056A		56A	
YB056B		56B	
YB056C		56C	
YB056D		56D	
YB056E		56E	
YB056F		56F	

YB056G		56G	
YB056H		56H	
EB052A	52A		BQ17A
EB052B	52B		BQ17H
EB052C	52C		BQ17I
EB052D	52D		BQ17L
EB052E	52E		
BB053A	53A	57A	BQ18A
BB053B	53B	57B	BQ18E
BB053C	53C	57C	BQ18F
BB053D	53D	57D	BQ18H
BB053E	53E	57E	BQ18J
BB053F	53F	57F	
BB053G	53G	57G	
BB053H	53H	57H	
BB054	54	58	
BB055	55	59	
BB056	56	60	
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BB057B	57B	61B	BQ20B
BB057C	57C	61C	BQ20C
BB057D	57D	61D	BQ20D
BB057E	57E	61E	BQ20E
BB057F	57F	61F	BQ20F
BB057G	57G	61G	BQ20G
BB057H	57H	61H	BQ20H
BB057I	57I	61I	BQ20I
BB057J	57J	61J	BQ20J
BB057K	57K	61K	
BB057L	57L	61L	
BB058A	58A	62A	BQ21A
BB058B	58B	62B	BQ21B
BB058C	58C	62C	BQ21C
BB058D	58D	62D	BQ21D
BB058E	58E	62E	BQ21E
BB058F	58F	62F	BQ21F
BB058G	58G	62G	BQ21G
BB058H	58H	62H	BQ21H
BB058I	58I	62I	
BB058J	58J	62J	
BB058K	58K	62K	
BB058L	58L	62L	
YB063A		63A	
YB063B		63B	
YB063C		63C	
YB064A		64A	
YB064B		64B	
YB064C		64C	
YB064D		64D	
YB064E		64E	
YB064F		64F	
YB064G		64G	
YB064H		64H	

YB064I		64I	
YB064J		64J	
BB059A	59A	66A	
BB059B	59B	66B	
BB059C	59C	66C	
BB059D	59D	66D	
BB059E	59E	59E	
BB059F	59F	59F	
BB060	60	65	
BB061A	61A	67A	
BB061B	61B	67B	
BB061C	61C	67C	
BB061D	61D	67D	
BB061E	61E	67E	
BB061F	61F	67F	
BB061G	61G	67G	
BB062	62	68	BQ25A
EB063A	63A		BQ26A
EB063B	63B		BQ26E
EB063C	63C		BQ26F
EB063D	63D		BQ26G
EB063E	63E		BQ26H
EB063F	63F		BQ26J
EB064	64		BQ34
BB065	65	69	BQ29B
BB066	66	70	BQ91B
BB067	67	71	
YB072A		72A	
YB072B		72B	
BB068A	68A	72C	
BB068B	68B	72D	
EB068C	68C		
EB068D	68D		
EB069	69	73	BQ28
BB070	70	74	
BB071	71	75	BQ31
BB072A	72A	76A	
BB072B	72B	76B	
BB072C	72C	76C	
BB072D	72D	76D	
BB072E	72E	76E	
BB072F	72F	76F	
BB072G	72G	76G	
BB072H	72H	76H	
BB072I	72I	76I	
EB073	73		BQ33
EB074	74		
BB075	75	33	
EB076	76		
EB077	77		
BB078	78	77	
EB079AA	79A-A		
EB079AB	79A-B		

EB079AC	79A-C		
EB079BA	79B-A		
EB079BB	79B-B		
EB079BC	79B-C		
EB079CA	79C-A		
EB079CB	79C-B		
EB079CC	79C-C		
EB079CD	79C-D		
EB079CE	79C-E		
EB079CF	79C-F		
EB079CG	79C-G		
EB080	80		
BB081A	81A	78A	
BB081B	81B	78B	
BB081C	81C	78C	
BB081D	81D	78D	
BB081E	81E	78E	
YB079		79	
BB082	82	80	
YB081		81	
YB082		82	
YB083		83	
BB083	83	84	
BB084	84	85	
BB085	85	86	
BB086	86	87	
BB087A	87A	88A	
BB087B	87B	88B	
BB087C	87C	88C	
BB087D	87D	88D	
BB087E	87E	88E	
BB087F	87F	88F	
BB087G	87G	88G	
BB088	88	89	BQ83
BB089	89	90	
BB090	90	91	BQ84
BB091	91	92	BQ92
BB092	92	93	
BB093	93	94	
BB094	94	95	
BB095	95	96	
BB096A	96A	97A	
BB096B	96B	97B	
BB096C	96C	97C	
BB096D	96D	97D	
BB096E	96E	97E	
BB097	97	98	
EB098	98		BQ87
EB099	99		
BB100	100	99	
BB101	101	100	
BB102	102	101	
BB103	103	102	

BB104A	104A	103A	BQ94A
BB104B	104B	103B	BQ94B
BB104C	104C	103C	BQ94D
BB104D	104D	103D	BQ94I
BB104E	104E	103E	BQ94J
BB104F	104F	103F	BQ94K
BB104G	104G	103G	
BB104H	104H	103H	
BB104I	104I	103I	
BB105A	105A	104A	
BB105B	105B	104B	
BB105C	105C	104C	
BB106A	106A	105A	
BB106B	106B	105B	
BB106C	106C	105C	
BB107	107	107	BQ70
BB108	108	108	
BB109	109	109	
BB110	110	110	BQ71
BB111A	111A	111A	
BB111B	111B	111B	
BB111C	111C	111C	
EB112	112		
BB113	113	106	
EB114	114		
BB115	115	112	
EB116A	116A		BQ68A
EB116B	116B		BQ68B
EB116C	116C		BQ68C
EB116D	116D		BQ68D
EB116E	116E		BQ68E
EB116F	116F		
EB116G	116G		BQ68F
EB117	117		BQ66
EB118	118		BQ67
BB120	120	113	BQ69A
EB121AA	121A-A		BQ22H
EB121AB	121A-B		BQ22I
EB121AC	121A-C		BQ22M
EB121AD	121A-D		BQ22B
EB121AE	121A-E		BQ22A
EB121AF	121A-F		BQ22R
EB121BA	121B-A		BQ22J
EB121BB	121B-B		BQ22J
EB121BC	121B-C		BQ22E
EB121BD	121B-D		BQ22G
EB121BE	121B-E		BQ22N
EB121BF	121B-F		BQ22D
EB121BG	121B-G		BQ22G
EB121BH	121B-H		BQ22B
EB121BI	121B-I		BQ22A
EB121BJ	121B-J		BQ22C
EB121BK	121B-K		

EB121CA	121C-A	
EB121CB	121C-B	
EB121CC	121C-C	
YB114AA		114A-A
YB114AB		114A-B
YB114AC		114A-C
YB114AD		114A-D
YB114AE		114A-E
YB114AF		114A-F
YB114BA		114B-A
YB114BB		114B-B
YB114BC		114B-C
YB114BD		114B-D
YB114BE		114B-E
YB114BF		114B-F
YB114BG		114B-G
YB114BH		114B-H
YB114BI		114B-I
YB114BJ		114B-J
YB114BK		114B-K
YB114CA		114C-A
YB114CB		114C-B
YB114CC		114C-C